THE STORY OF THE GREAT WAR

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THE STORY OF THE GREAT WAR

Painting by F. E. Schoonover
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THE ALLIED AIRPLANES AND ARTILLERY WORKED HAVOC IN THE RANKS OF THE RETREATING HUNS

THE STORY OF THE GREAT WAR

BY

WILLIAM STANLEY BRAITHWAITE

WITH TWELVE ILLUSTRATIONS IN COLOR

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TO MY CHILDREN

Fiona	William
Katharine	Paul
Edith	Arnold

AND

TO ALL CHILDREN OF
EVERY RACE AND CREED
UNITED
THROUGH THE IDEALS FOR WHICH
OUR COUNTRY ENTERED THE GREAT WAR
TO MAKE
TRUE AMERICANS OF TOMORROW
AND
PRESERVE THE HOPE OF THE WORLD

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PART I

HOW THE WAR CAME ABOUT

THE STORY OF THE GREAT WAR

CHAPTER I

A SHORT VIEW OF A LONG CENTURY

THERE was once a great battle fought in Belgium, not far from the city of Brussels, at a village called Waterloo, when Napoleon Bonaparte was defeated by the British and Prussians together. This battle took place exactly one hundred years before the first year of the Great War in which the British and their Allies were fighting against, instead of with, the Prussians and their kin of the German empire. While Napoleon was fighting the British and Prussians at Waterloo,—a battle which took place one hundred days after his escape from the island of Elba in the Mediterranean Sea, where he had been in exile,—the statesmen of Europe were gathered at a congress in Vienna. They had met there to settle affairs in Europe, supposing Napoleon was secure from doing harm. But Napoleon escaped from his exile and attacked his enemies, and when he was defeated at Waterloo, and could do harm no more, the statesmen at Vienna made a treaty which was intended to keep France

from disturbing the peace, and also to make it impossible for another tyrant like Napoleon to arise and make military conquests.

This treaty, which is known as the Treaty of Vienna, was to serve other purposes. It was meant to destroy the military power of a nation that had learned to love war and conquest through the military genius of its great emperor. But the statesmen at Vienna destroyed one evil only to create another. They put all the power of government in the hands of the rulers to whom the people were obliged to submit. This was what is called "autocracy." It was the way that an Austrian statesman, Prince Metternich, believed that nations ought to be governed, and Metternich took the leading part in spreading his ideas all over Europe. I want to remind you of this idea of autocracy which was the most important result of the Congress of Vienna that was held in 1815, because its effect upon the course of history is plain. It was the cause of revolutions in every European country, for as a result of it the people demanded constitutions, somewhat like ours in the United States, which would give them a right to say how they should be governed.

The people of Europe were a long while in forcing constitutions from their rulers. It was not, in fact, until after Prince Metternich was overthrown as the chief minister of the Austrian emperor in 1848, and was obliged to flee in exile to England, that there was any hope of the people governing themselves. In the year 1848, all of Europe was in revolution, and for a while it looked

as if the kings and princes would lose their power to oppress their subjects any longer. They made promises which quieted the people, but these were not kept, and before long their rule was the same as ever. Their position, however, as absolute masters of so many millions of people in the various countries, was weakened; for though the people were for a time defeated in their desires, they began to realize that they were too strong for one man to oppress them just because he was a king, or for a handful of men to do so because they were his ministers.

If there had been another statesman of Prince Metternich's crafty and unprincipled ability to reorganize the rulers through another alliance after 1848, similar to The Holy Alliance which he created in 1815, freedom might have been much further off. But it was not until our day that another man arose who wished to control the peoples of other nations besides his own. This man was William Hohenzollern, the former emperor of Germany. The way for him, however, had been prepared by an earlier Prussian statesman, Otto von Bismarck, who took up and perfected the idea of autocracy in Germany when all the other nations, except Russia and Austria, were winning their liberties from kings and princes.

Bismarck did not believe that the people had any right, or knew, as a matter of fact, how to rule themselves. This idea he impressed upon his sovereign, the King of Prussia. This, of course, was before the German states were united into the mighty empire, which it was Bismarck's ambition to make, and in the days when Prussia and Austria were

both striving to become the most powerful German state. Bismarck had three great ambitions to fulfill in his career. One was to humiliate Austria so that she would be forced to acknowledge the leadership of Prussia among the German states; the second was to defeat France which had been the strongest nation in Europe and had practically, since the days of Louis XIV, dominated the affairs of Europe; and with France too helpless to protest, his third ambition was to unite all the German states into a mighty empire with Prussia at its head and the master of Europe.

Bismarck may have been hurried in carrying out his schemes for Prussia's greatness by what he saw taking place in the neighboring countries. Italy, which had been like Germany a group of separate states but of one race, threw off the yoke of Austria and became united, through the efforts of a Piedmontese statesman, Count Cavour, into a kingdom under Victor Emmanuel II. France was a republic with Louis Napoleon Bonaparte, a nephew of the great Napoleon, as president, who a little later tricked the French people to turn their republic into an empire and to accept him as emperor. But everywhere popular sentiment was for national liberty, that is, for the freedom of the people to govern themselves—everywhere, it must be remembered, in all of western Europe except in Prussia. And to keep the Prussians tied to the will of their king, Bismarck had to make him the most powerful ruler in Europe and the kingdom contented and prosperous.

His means of doing this was by successful wars abroad and by a policy of "blood and iron" at home. Thus he came to be known as the "iron chancellor." He attacked Denmark, with aid of Austria, because the Danes had violated a promise in regard to the province of Schleswig by adding it to their kingdom. Successful in the attack Bismarck welcomed the quarrel that followed with Austria over the spoils. It then took only seven weeks for Prussia to crush Austria, which made her the undisputed head of the German states. Bismarck next turned towards France, but in this direction he had to play his game more carefully. He first had to make sure that France had no friends among the nations, and it must appear to the world that it was France who wanted the war and not Prussia. Every opportunity fell nicely into Bismarck's lap and he made the most of them all without caring a fig whether he was acting honestly or not. Thus it happened that the Spaniards offered their vacant throne to a Prussian prince but France did not think it was safe for her to have him accept it. About the matter the King of Prussia, who was away from Berlin, sent Bismarck a telegram which was the report of his conversation with the French ambassador in which the dispute was accepted as settled.

This report was the famous Ems telegram. Bismarck took the king's words, and by leaving out some here and there, made it appear that the meeting between the Prussian king and the French ambassador had been anything but pleasant, and that the behavior of each had been an

insult to the other's country. When the telegram was published as Bismarck changed it, both France and Prussia were enraged, the former immediately declaring war. This was exactly what Bismarck wanted, and in less than six months the gallant but unprepared French armies were defeated; and with all the sovereigns of the German states gathered in the famous Hall of Mirrors in the Palace of Versailles, outside of Paris, the King of Prussia was proclaimed emperor of the newly created German empire.

This youthful empire, the latest and last to be born among the nations, was a giant at its birth, and that birth was the result, as you have seen, of an autocratic rule that was perfect. To safeguard what he had founded Bismarck created alliances, or agreements, with Austria and Italy. Bismarck was now content; Germany was the most powerful nation in Europe, and he cared little, so long as this was so, what the other countries did outside of Europe. He was growing to be an old man now, but the empire was lusty with youth and the ambitions of youth. William I, the first German emperor, died, his son Frederick succeeded to the imperial throne but only reigned three months when he too died, and his son William II became the German emperor.

William II was a very ambitious and aggressive young man. He represented the aspirations of a new Germany. He had scarcely been on the throne two years when he quarreled with Bismarck and virtually dismissed him from office. Under this clever but not very profound ruler

Germany began to have dreams of a greatness beyond any that Bismarck had ever believed in or wished for; it was as if the emperor said, "Continental supremacy is very fine, and makes us respected and feared, but it does not shed upon my people the glory of a world empire. There is England with her dominions on which the sun never sets, and France with vast colonies across the seas which enrich her people. See how they rule and are mighty, not merely in the eyes of a continent, but the whole world! God has appointed me to take the great heritage of the German empire and go forth and overcome those nations and rule the world so that it may benefit by the superior civilization of the German people. We are a mighty race and will triumph."

If the Kaiser, as the German emperor was called, did not use these very words, they were in truth the substance of his thoughts, and he expressed them in words that were often more pointed and violent. His speeches, and he was very fond of making speeches on every occasion that presented itself, were continually boastful and defiant. Moreover all the greatest men in Germany in every walk of professional life, from the army to the schoolroom, began to imitate the emperor, and to boast about the might of the German race, of the superior civilization of the German people, and the fact that they were ordained by heaven to lead the nations of the world.

At first the other nations looked upon the German emperor as a vainglorious character, and a little unsound in mind; and upon the boasting and threats of the army

officers, professors, merchants and preachers as sign of their desire to flatter and please their ruler. But all the while a few thinking men in other countries like France and England began to note the actions rather than the words of the German people. They noticed how their trade grew in foreign countries and the methods by which it grew. They noticed how the German army was growing more powerful and efficient year after year because of the laws that were passed in the German Reichstag; they noticed how Germany had a growing tendency to meddle in the foreign affairs of other nations, and how generally in the settlement she would want a bit of land in Africa or Asia as the price of her agreement, and this convinced them that she wanted to build a colonial empire; they noticed that she was gradually creeping through the heart of Europe to the east, along the lines of a great railroad she had got Turkey to permit her to build which would give direct transportation from Berlin to the ancient and fabled city of Bagdad,—and a few in England noticed that she was building a great navy which could have, as far as the world could see, only one purpose, and that purpose the very building of this navy proclaimed—namely, to cripple the greatest navy in the world, which was England's, in case of battle, so that Germany would be as great as any nation on the sea. Then they knew that Germany was dangerous; not because she was successful in all these things, but on account of the use she planned to make of her success.

So, with this growing suspicion of a dangerous Ger-

many, first Russia and France, then France and England, and finally England and Russia, made an agreement to help each other in case either one of them was attacked by this threatening neighbor. Between these countries, France and Russia on the one hand, England and France, and again England and Russia, there had been for a long while feelings of distrust and rivalry. Yet they thought it best in a common defense of peace and security to forget and forgive all their past differences to protect themselves. So they stood opposed to that other alliance known as the Triple Alliance, of which Germany was the head. Germany, it must be confessed, thought very little of Russia, an autocratic government like herself, in relation to the combination of powers that stood ready to stop her mad course of conquest. It was the two great democracies, the free nations of France and England, that formed what was called the *Entente Cordiale,* that is a cordial understanding of what each country owed to the other in support and sympathy in time of trouble brought on by the undeserved attack of another nation, which Germany feared and wished to break up. She had on two occasions tried to do this and failed, in connection with the French claims in Morocco. Her other attempt was in a different field, in which her ally, Austria, took the leading part with Germany's support. This was in the Balkans when Austria annexed the Slavic provinces of Bosnia and Herzegovina. On this occasion Germany triumphed in defying the Powers to interfere with her ally when breaking a promise; but it

was a triumph that led to the ruin of war. From the moment this annexation of Bosnia and Herzegovina by Austria took place the Balkan States were a source of danger to the peace of Europe, and when on June 28, 1914, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, heir to the Austrian throne, and his wife were assassinated by Gavrio Princip, a young Bosnian student, in the Bosnian capital of Serajevo, Germany seized upon it as the opportunity to provoke the war she had so long prepared for and looked forward to.

CHAPTER II

THE CHALLENGE OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

DO you know how old the British empire is and how it was built? Well, it was built upon the foundations of those great colonial possessions which were first added to the mother country, England, in the eighteenth century,—that is, nearly two hundred years ago. In winning great colonies all over the world England's wish was to give her people at home a chance to sell the merchandise they made. This is what we call foreign trade. England built a very large number of ships to carry the merchandise across the seas to be sold in the countries she ruled; and she also carried merchandise of other nations because she had more ships than they had for this purpose. The ships that carried on this ocean trade are known as the merchant marine. To protect them from pirates in the old days and from any interruptions and harm that the enemies of England might do them, she built a great many powerful warships. That is how England's navy grew. And this you must remember: Her navy was built to protect her colonial possessions, and the trade she carried on with these and with other nations. And this was necessary, because England is what is known as a manufacturing nation, that is, a

country in which most of the citizens work in making articles which are of use for our various needs. Where the greater number of a country's citizens work in factories there are not enough to till the soil for the food necessary to feed the people. The food then has to be brought into the country. And that is the case with England. So England had to have a great navy not only to protect her many colonies that were far away in other parts of the world, like Canada and Australia and India and South Africa, but especially to make it safe for her people to trade with them and other nations, so they could have food. You can see then, that England kept the largest and most powerful navy in the world to protect her own existence by safely bringing food into the islands that make up the United Kingdoms of England, Scotland and Ireland, from lands across the seas. This navy never made a willful attack upon the ships or coasts of another nation. It was made the greatest navy in the world, for protection and defense.

Now the German empire was only forty-three years old when the Great War began in 1914. The ruler of this youthful empire, Kaiser William II, who was also the King of Prussia, was jealous of the greatness and power of the British empire which was ruled by those little islands just across the North Sea and only a short distance from the coast of Germany. Indeed, most of the people of Germany, especially the Prussians who were the strongest and the most warlike of all of them, were jealous of the English who had so successfully built and

ruled the mighty British empire for nearly two hundred years. When the Kaiser as a young man came to the imperial throne he began to dream of a greatness for his country like that of England. And he went about making speeches in which he said that to win that greatness Germany, like England, must have a mighty fleet of warships. But he did not want these warships to protect the trade of Germany with foreign countries, which was growing very large; nor to bring food into Germany to feed the people. He had a different aim than that. He hoped some day to be able to defeat the great British navy in battle, and take England's place as the greatest colonial power in the world.

Let me explain to you how the German emperor and his people came to have this great but unhappy ambition. Before Prussia with the aid of the south German states, such as Bavaria, Wurtemburg, and Saxony, defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War of 1871, the Germans were an agricultural people; that is, they lived on the soil, producing the food that was needed to live by, and getting their merchandise from other countries, principally England and France. But in the settlement of the victorious war with France the Prussians took from her two provinces, Alsace and Lorraine, which were very rich in iron ore. This iron ore, added to what the Germans had in the new empire that was created right after the victory over France, gave them a larger quantity of this valuable material than any other country in Europe. Germany had besides a great deal of coal lying in the

lands that she had at one time or another in the past taken from her neighbors. Coal and iron are the most necessary materials for manufacturing. And now being very rich in these the people of Germany began to leave the countryside and the farms to enter into the fast growing cities and work in factories.

The nation soon had more merchandise than the people could use, and the government encouraged the manufacturers and merchants to sell the extra merchandise in foreign countries. It was in this way that Germany first began to rival England. It began, as you see, with trade. And as the Germans were very successful in this rivalry of outselling the English in their own markets, they began to believe themselves stronger and cleverer than the English in every way. England was growing very old and weak, they thought, while the Germans were young and strong. They believed they ought to have great colonies, and that they could rule them better than the English. So they began to get colonies, but they were neither rich nor populous like the great British colonies; nor, for that matter, like the French colonies—which also made the Germans envious. The colonies that the Germans wanted were either under the British or French flags. Especially those under the British flag, like Canada, Australia, and India and the South African Republics, were what the Germans most desired. But one immense fact stood between this desire and its fulfillment—the powerful British navy. The Germans made up their minds then, that their only chance to become a great colonial empire was to get

the British navy out of the way since it stood as a guardian, not only over the far scattered dominions of Great Britain, but over the lawful possessions of the other nations who were too weak in sea-power to protect themselves. And to get the British navy out of the way, Germany had first to build as many warships of every kind as those that floated the Union Jack. Then on some excuse she could challenge the British to fight. The outcome of this fight the Germans felt confident would be to their advantage. If she did not wholly destroy the British fleet, it would be so badly crippled in battle that its supremacy on the sea would be gone, and Germany could make demands that England would be obliged to heed out of fear.

Now you must not believe that because the German emperor hinted, and very strongly too, and a great number of his privileged subjects such as the rich business men, the learned professors, and the officers in the army spoke out plainly what they felt about England, that they did anything more direct to arouse England's suspicion or hatred. For after all, the Germans feared the English. The English are a very easy-going people and generally pay no attention to what other nations may say about them. It is only when the lion's tail is twisted that he growls and bites; and it has to be twisted pretty hard for him to leap with all his might. The Germans were getting ready to twist the lion's tail, but they were going to make sure first that he had no claws and teeth when that time came. You will understand what I mean when I say the Germans wanted to make sure that the

British lion had no friends when the time came to give his tail a hard and cruel wrench. They were not yet ready to do this because they had first to pull the teeth of France and cut off the claws of Russia, since these nations were, as you have been told, the friends of the British.

So while the Germans were building their great navy, which they hoped would one day be strong enough to fight and defeat the British navy, they were carrying out another purpose under the name of a society to which all the rich landowners of the country belonged, namely, to master and control all the nations of central Europe. This society was known as the Pan-Germanic. Through it the Germans intended to expand their commercial power over all the countries that reached through central Europe to Turkey and the East, down to the Persian Gulf in Asia. With Austria and Italy, as you have been told, the Germans had made agreements which bound their military interests together in common, and it was easy for them with their superior strength, to take advantage of their friends. They had Austria completely under their influence. The difficulty was with the small, troublesome states on the Balkan Peninsula, and Turkey. The Balkan states were all once a part of the Turkish empire in Europe, but little by little after much fighting and suffering, and the help of the big Powers, they forced Turkey to grant them self-rule though owing her a certain allegiance. As most of the people in the Balkans were of the Slav race, Russia, whose people were Slav too, had a particular interest in their welfare. In Greece, of

course, were the descendents of the ancient Greeks, while the Roumanians were Latin.

The Pan-Germans sought and accomplished two things, to take the first step in achieving their ambitions. The first was to gain control of Turkey, because Turkey was the doorway to the east. The British had always found it necessary to exercise the strongest influence of any European power in Turkey, to make safe her water route to Asia and her empire of India. So the Germans had to get rid of the Sultan of Turkey's confidence in the British; and this they did. This was helped greatly by the visit Kaiser William made to the Sultan when he promised to be the protector of him and his people.

With the doorway to the east in their possession, the Germans had to command the pathway to the door, to succeed in their Pan-German scheme. That pathway lay across the Balkan States from Austria to Constantinople. This was the second of the two things to be accomplished.

Now to accomplish this Germany set Austria to work to replace the control of Russia in the Balkans, as she had replaced the control of England in Turkey. So in 1908, Austria broke her pledge to the Great Powers, which she had made to them at the Congress of Berlin, and annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina to her empire. The people of these provinces were Slavs and kin to the people in Serbia, who hoped some day to be reunited. They had been taken from the control of Turkey who mistreated them badly, and placed under the care of Austria, when they should have been given to Serbia; if they had been, it would have

saved a lot of trouble and suffering in the world. For this act of Austria, in annexing these provinces, inspired and supported by Germany, was the direct cause of the Great War.

You see the Pan-Germans were behind these events that I have described. If they could control all of middle Europe to expand their business with the east, they would be daring enough to ask England why they should be excluded from having some control in the affairs of India and China. And since they would be safe on land where their armies could act, and England far away on the sea where she could not reach them, some agreement would have to be made that would weaken England in her own possessions and in the world. That was intended as the first blow against England, to destroy her prosperity and wreck her influence; the second would come when the German navy was prepared to fight the British navy.

But in the meantime events happened which interfered with the German scheme. The Balkan States, tired of the long years of bad behavior towards them on the part of Turkey, joined together in a league created by the clever Greek statesman, Venizelos, and went to war against Turkey. The Turks were disastrously beaten, and all but driven out of Europe. This was not at all what Germany wanted, as a helpless Turkey and a union of strong, independent Balkan States, would ruin her Pan-German ambitions. Her opportunity to offset this condition of affairs, brought about by the defeat of Turkey, came when Bulgaria, dissatisfied with her share of the

victor's spoils, attacked her former friends. It was an unlucky attempt and she was defeated. Turkey took advantage of her foes fighting among themselves, and stole back some of the territory they had won from her. Bulgaria in her defeat turned to Germany who showed her a great deal of sympathy. In this the Germans began to patch up their broken bridge across the Balkans, so necessary to their Pan-German ideals. But again the unexpected happened. Serbia had been wronged by Austria when she annexed Bosnia and Herzegovina, and was never forgiven. So when a young Serbian patriot shot the heir to the Austrian throne, Germany inspired the Austrian government to make such severe demands of the Serbian government, as a penalty for the crime, that if accepted they would not only humiliate that little nation before the world, but take away its independence. Germany knew all the while that no free nation could accept the terms demanded, and that Austria would be compelled to go to war with Serbia. They knew also that Russia would come to the aid of the weak little nation, which would force Germany to fight against Russia in keeping her agreement with her ally, Austria. All this Germany knew, and wanted, because she wished to settle for all time her mastery over her neighbors, and build that strong bridge across the Balkans, into the rich and dazzling east, for her merchants and traders.

So the challenge went forth for the mighty contest of war, and the German people were riotously happy and

confident—until England accepted the challenge too! They never thought she would do so at this time, and that made them angry, and hate the English as no nation had ever been hated by another nation.

CHAPTER III

THE TEUTONIC ALLIES

I AM going to tell how the nations declared war against each other in another chapter, but just now it is important that you should understand how and why the enemies were bound together that our Allies were compelled to fight. These enemies were allies too, since they took a side in common against us. It was like taking sides in a game of baseball, one set of players being opposed to another. Only the game that these nations played was war. For Germany to win the game meant conquest, for France and England it meant liberty and freedom. So you see, this terrible game of war had a different meaning for each of the two sets of nations that were engaged.

Now Germany and the other nations that were fighting with her for conquest were known as the Teutonic Allies. They were so named because the most powerful member of this group, who was the leader, belonged to the Teutonic race. Austria was also a member of the Teutonic race, at least partly so, for German Austria was Teutonic and a German Hapsburg was emperor of Austria and king of Hungary. But German Austria was small in numbers and the emperor ruled a great many

people of other races, such as the Czechs and Slovaks in Bohemia and Moravia, the Poles and Ukrainians in Galicia, the Italians in the Trentino and the Istrian Peninsula, the Slovenes in Carniola, the Serbo-Croats in Croatia-Slovonia and Bosnia-Herzegovina, and the Magyars of Hungary, who in their turn, under a German king, ruled the Roumanians in Transylvania. The other two nations that joined with these two Teutonic countries and their subject races to fight in the war were Turkey and Bulgaria. You ought to know, too, that these four nations were called the Teutonic Allies because they fought at the command of Germany, who ordered their campaigns, sent some of her best officers to lead their troops, gave them supplies of ammunition and equipment for their armies, and loaned them money to carry on the war.

As nearly as we can make out, each of these four nations had a particular ambition to fulfill in winning the war. But that ambition was scarcely worth the suffering and the wealth they would have to pay to realize it. Germany's ambition was to become the absolute master of Europe, and then of the world, by destroying England's colonial power. Can you imagine a nation already rich and powerful, and already the strongest and most progressive country on the continent of Europe, willing to risk sacrifice of all she had just because another country was a little richer? Yet that is just what Germany did. She played with destiny just as a gambler plays with money. She wanted to take what did not rightfully belong to her. And like some gamblers she was ready to cheat to succeed,

and if caught at her cheating to use brute force to defend her spoils. That is exactly what she did, as you will learn in this book—only, for all her tremendous effort, *she did not succeed.*

Austria's ambition was to be master of the Balkan Peninsula. Her empire was a crazy quilt of many races, which were troublesome enough to rule. But she wanted to add still more for the sake of increasing her own power and riches, and also because it would be a great and necessary help to Germany in her scheme to command a trade route to the east. Bulgaria's ambition was one of pure revenge against Serbia, and that revenge meant taking a lot of the latter's territory which would make Bulgaria the strongest of the Balkan States. Turkey's ambition was to make herself, with victory, secure among the nations and to be able confidently to rule her subject peoples, such as the Christians in Armenia, the Arabs in Arabia, the Syrians in Syria, and the Jews in Palestine; and to regain the ancient and historic country of Egypt which once was subject to the Sultan's power. Turkey had another ambition in the war which, however, the Turkish people did not want, but were forced into by their government under control of the Germans. This ambition was to see Russia so badly beaten that she would no longer have the strength to covet Constantinople, the Turk's capital, and with it the command of the Dardanelles. For over a century the Russians wanted this city which would give them a warm water port all the year round for the export of their wheat and the import of merchandise.

The Germans persuaded the Turks to join in the war and help make certain the defeat of Russia, so that this fear about the loss of Constantinople would pass away forever.

These are the reasons why, for themselves, each of these nations fought on the side of Germany. In doing so they had the conviction, too, that Germany was going to win the war. Almost to the very end they were quite sure about it. Germany, for her part, cared very little why Austria and Turkey and Bulgaria entered the war on her side. Her own national reasons she regarded as the most important, and she looked upon the fighting of her allies as a necessary help in carrying out her ambitions.

Though Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria believed for so long that Germany was going to defeat her enemies in the west, it did not take them long to realize how selfish she was in looking out for her own interests first,—and that it was for her interests principally that her allies were fighting, and not their own. Germany did not conceal from them the fact that her soldiers were better than theirs, that her officers had considerably more talent than theirs, and that it was due to the planning of her great General Staff which enabled them to invade the enemies' countries. When there was a great campaign to be undertaken, the Germans not only planned it, but sent some of their best generals to direct it. That was why General von Mackensen led the Austrians who drove the Russians out of Galicia in the summer of 1915, and again later in the

same year invaded and devastated Serbia; that was why General von Mackensen and General von Falkenhayn, both Germans, with Austro-German troops, turned Roumania's short-lived victory into disastrous defeat and overran the country. Another German general, Liman von Sanders, led the Turks against the English in Mesopotamia and Palestine.

The Germans all but despised their allies because without her help they were nearly always defeated. They did not help her to win, but merely to prolong the war. As things were it would have pleased the Germans very much if they could have won with such weak comrades, because then they would have been her vassals in carrying out her Pan-German schemes. Against all right and reason she dragged these countries into a terrible war, and it was their weakness that eventually affected her own chances of victory.

CHAPTER IV

THE STORY OF THE DECLARATIONS OF WAR

THIS is how war was declared. The Austrian government delivered an ultimatum, that is a final demand, to the Serbian government, on July 23, 1914, giving Serbia forty-eight hours in which to reply. Serbia immediately asked the advice of her friends who counseled her to accept all the conditions but one, which would take away her freedom. This Serbia did, but since the demands were not agreed to completely, Austria found the reply unsatisfactory, and on July 28, declared war against Serbia, and began hostilities.

As soon as Russia, England and France knew of the ultimatum, they began very earnestly to have the quarrel between Austria and Serbia settled without war; Russia asking Austria to give Serbia a longer time in which to answer the ultimatum, and England appealing to Germany to use her influence with Austria to act in such a way as to keep other nations out of the quarrel. She also beseeched Germany herself to do nothing as Austria's ally that would provoke other nations to take Serbia's side in the war, but rather to help England in keeping the war confined to Austria and Serbia alone. All these efforts, however, were of no avail. Germany, while she pretended

to help keep the war from spreading, did not help. Instead she took every act or good intention of Serbia's chief friend, Russia, as a threat against herself. And behaving much as Bismarck behaved at the time of the Franco-Prussian conflict, that is dishonestly and deceitfully, the Kaiser declared war against Russia.

Well, at last the Kaiser had drawn the sword. He told his people that it was thrust into his hands by his enemies. He did not ask the people if they wanted war, because he had taught them to believe that it was his personal right to declare war and make peace. Germany went to war with Russia on August 1, 1914.

Having declared war against Russia, Germany knew that sooner or later France, because of her agreement to befriend Russia when attacked, would come to the latter's aid. It was therefore to Germany's advantage to start hostilities before France was ready. So Germany made a charge, which she knew was false, that some French aviators had crossed the frontier and dropped bombs on German towns. This charge was immediately followed by a declaration of war against France.

How false was this charge may be seen in the fact that, though Germany declared war against Russia first, *it was along the French frontier that Germany had placed hundreds of thousands of troops many days before even Austria had declared war against Serbia.*

France was now again at war with Germany after forty-four years, and while the people were brave and full of determination to meet the enemy, they were sad and

hopeless. They could scarcely know then, as all the world has known since, that on August 8, 1914, was to begin the most glorious of all the glorious periods in the history of France. But what made the French people so sad and hopeless was the fact that they did not know what England was going to do in the crisis. England, it was true, had an agreement with France, just as Russia had, but what her action would be no one knew. England reserved her right of action, as she told Germany when that country basely tried to bribe her to stay neutral, and she told the same thing to France when it seemed certain that Russia would cause the French to be pulled into the war.

Germany herself, however, decided the question whether or no England would take part in the war. It was not Germany's intention to have England against her; as a matter of fact she did not believe that England would join her enemies. The German statesmen and soldiers who could believe that, in light of what they did, were very unwise. Men without honor cannot see honor in other men. And the Germans were foolish enough to think that England cared too much for peace and safety and prosperity to let an ideal like honor, which had only a moral value, destroy them. Having lost all sense of it themselves, they could not believe that it was worth more to some men than life itself. It was a costly mistake they made, that followed them with vengeance all through the war.

When Belgium became an independent kingdom, her neutrality was guaranteed by England, France and

Prussia, that is to say, either or all of these nations would defend Belgium against the attack of an enemy. Belgium on her part promised to be neutral in case any of these three countries were at war with each other. If Belgium was too small to defend herself, it was quite out of the question to think she would attack any of her powerful neighbors. Her neutrality consisted then, in not granting the permission to any of the Great Powers to use her territory for the passage of troops to attack another nation.

Yet this is what Germany, who had given her word to Belgium to protect her, asked to do. She asked the Belgian government to let her send troops across Belgian soil to attack France. And King Albert, in the name of his people, refused.

England had asked both France and Germany when events looked threatening, if they were ready, in case of war, to stand by their pledges and respect the neutrality of Belgium. France at once informed England that she would keep her obligation towards the little nation; Germany evaded the question. When King Albert told England of Germany's demand for a passage for her troops across Belgian soil, the English sent an ultimatum to Germany, asking again if she meant to keep her obligation, and demanded an answer in twenty-four hours. Instead of answering the English, the Germans, having King Albert's refusal to let their troops pass, declared war against Belgium, and on the same day sent an army across the frontier and began the invasion of the country. This was on August 4, 1914. England waited until mid-

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night on the same day, and receiving no reply to her ultimatum, declared war against Germany.

England was now in the balance against Germany, and her declaration of war had two very great effects. One was on France, where a thrill of joy went through the whole country, and lifted the gloom that hung over every Frenchman's heart. The other was on Germany, where it awakened a passion of anger that filled every German's heart with hate. When the English ambassador called on the German chancellor before leaving Berlin, the latter told him in a rage that it was unbelievable that England should declare war on Germany "just for a scrap of paper."

That remark, more than any deed afterwards committed by the German army, revealed the thoroughly unprincipled character of the German government.

This act of invading little Belgium whom Germany had given her pledge to protect and defend, shocked the entire world. Within a week from the time that Austria began the war against Serbia, the world knew that it was to be fought for something more serious and vital than the punishment of a small nation for somehow having had part in a political crime. Germany's behavior had, as you might say, let the cat out of the bag. She at once told the world there was nothing sacred but might, and that she was bound only to "the necessity that knows no law." It was a pretty plain way of saying, "We, the Germans, mean to rule the world."

But England stepped right in the path of the bully

and said, "You are wrong. Honor and duty and respect for the rights of others are more sacred than might. For they are the virtues of the soul which is given us from God, while might is merely the gift of the body, and is material, and will perish. England is proud to sacrifice all her material possessions so that civilization may keep its faith in the virtues of the soul."

The war, then, as every one knew, became a war for faith and honor and duty, which meant the liberty of nations and the freedom of mankind.

This conviction grew stronger and stronger among the nations as the cruel and barbarous acts of the German army in Belgium became known to the world, and the nations began to take sides against Germany. The friends she might have had were lost when she told the world that "necessity knows no law." The nations knew by this time that her "necessity" was to conquer and rule. And if it so happened that any of them stood in her way, as did innocent little Belgium, they too would be treated in the same cruel manner. So to protect themselves they had to declare war against her, or break off what is called "diplomatic relations," that is have no dealings with her, calling home their representatives from Berlin and sending home the German ambassadors in their own capitals.

All these declarations of war against Germany and the severing of relations did not take place at once. They went on for nearly four years, because Germany was very hard to defeat. Up to the very last year of the war it seemed as if Germany might win. She had taken the

world by surprise, and after forty-four years of preparation in the science of warfare, down to the very least detail, the advantage she had was terribly difficult to overcome. But with twenty-four nations at war with her and her three allies, the outcome could not have been other than it proved; the question was how long the world would have to suffer the agony and destruction of conflict before right would triumph.

France was the first nation to declare war against Germany and was followed in the next four days by Belgium, England, Serbia and Russia. Two days after Russia, Montenegro declared war, and before the year 1914 ended Japan joined with these nations against Germany.

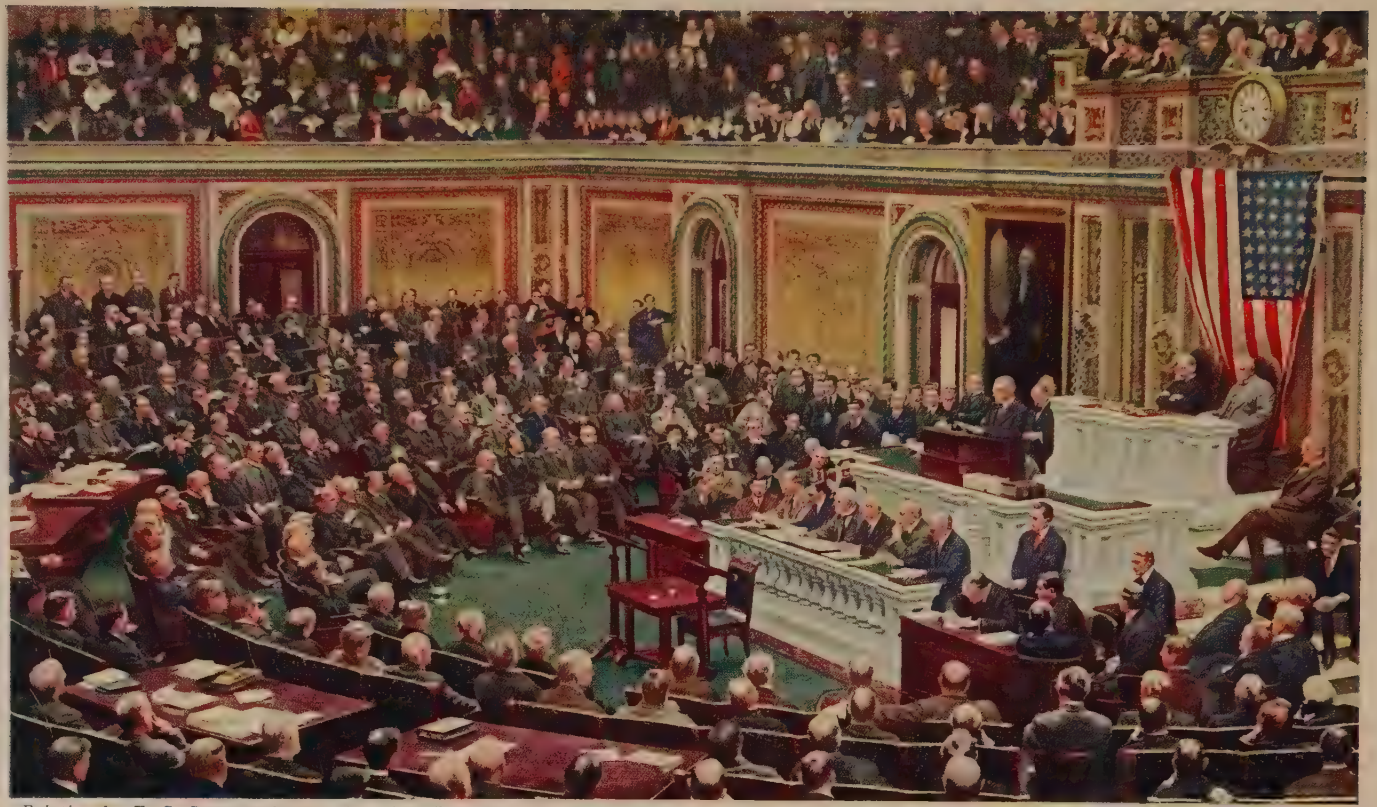
In 1916, Portugal and Italy declared war.

In 1917, the number of Germany's enemies doubled, as the following nations in order, made declarations of war: the United States, Cuba, Panama, Greece, Siam, Liberia and China.

The following year, 1918, and the fourth year of the war, Guatemala, Nicaragua, Costa Rica, Haiti, Honduras and Brazil, increased the number of combatants against the Germans to twenty-two.

Some of these twenty-two nations declared war also against all of the other Teutonic Allies, Austria, Turkey and Bulgaria, while some only against Austria, such as the United States, and others still, only against Turkey or Bulgaria.

Altogether there were twenty-eight nations engaged



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IT WAS A SOLEMN MOMENT WHEN PRESIDENT WILSON URGED CONGRESS TO DECLARE WAR ON GERMANY

in the war. Roumania and the little nation of San Marino, though fighting in the same cause as England, France and Russia and their Allies, declared war only against Austria.

Can you imagine what this meant if we consider figures? It meant that 1,575,135,000 inhabitants of the world were at war, and that thirty millions of these were in the armies at the front. It staggers belief. No wonder it was called the World War!

PART II

THE EMBATTLED NATIONS

CHAPTER I

THE STORY OF BELGIUM

I AM going to tell you very briefly the story of the nations that were at war with Germany. This is not to be an account of their battles at the front, those we shall follow in other chapters, but of the battles at home which were quite as important in achieving victory.

Unlike all previous wars, the World War was not merely a battle of armies, but a battle of nations. You have, no doubt, very often heard the word *morale*. You have heard it said that the morale of the troops was splendid, or that the morale of the nation was broken. Well, this word morale describes the state of mind in which the soldier fights, or the state of mind in which the nation works to sustain and support its armies in the field.

This state of mind in the soldier or the nation is affected by the spirit. That is to say, if the soldier is well-fed, well-clothed and equipped, and is confident of victory, he goes into battle with such a strong and determined spirit that his mind is clear and alert and he feels unconquerable. When an army is like this, its morale is good. But when an army is hungry, or ill-clothed, or badly led by its officers, or has been repeatedly defeated, and it goes

into battle with a reluctant and depressed spirit, the minds of the soldiers are confused and nervous and the morale is bad. One of the chief things that the generals on both sides in the Great War tried to do was to break the enemy's morale. In that way lay victory.

And back of the army's morale was the nation's morale which was very necessary to keep the army going in such a long and wearisome conflict as the World War. The nation's morale, it is true, was affected by the progress of the armies in their campaigns, but should these armies suffer a prolonged series of defeats, this was not always enough to break it. Defeats often stimulated the nation to greater exertion in giving the armies fresh confidence in their efforts. This was quite true of England and France in the course of the war. The morale of the people in these countries was bad on two or three occasions, during the first three years of the war but it was never broken. Had that been so, the war would have been lost.

In the World War, as I have said, not armies but nations were in conflict. And what happened at home was quite as important in winning victory as what happened on the battlefields. The morale of the people was deeply affected by what they experienced in sustaining the armies, by the sacrifices they made in everything that touched their daily life, through their grief for the dead, through the small quantities of food they had to be satisfied with, through the comforts and luxuries they were compelled to deny themselves, the freedom of speech and action it was necessary to renounce, the hard and many labors they

had to perform, and a hundred other vital but unaccustomed things which the war brought to their very hearthsides. The spirit of everybody was tried very sorely, and it was the strength of this spirit in the nation as a whole that decided whether the war would be lost or won.

How did the people behave under their sufferings and sacrifices and labors, in each of the Allied nations? That is what we want to know. It is true that all of them acted with a great deal of heroism. But as each race was different in temperament, the character of the heroism had a different expression and interest. I am going to tell you about the Belgian people first because it was their fate to endure with glorious heroism the agonies of a war for which they were not responsible, and indeed had been assured would never be their lot to experience.

For this reason we call Belgium "The Martyred Nation." When a man suffers and dies for his faith and convictions, such as the early believers in the Christian religion, he is regarded as a martyr. He has been willing to sacrifice everything, even life, for what he believes to be true. That is what Belgium did. The Belgian people had the absolute conviction that it was not right for them to consent to the passage of the German troops across their country to attack France with whom they lived on friendly terms. And this conviction they backed with all the military strength they possessed. It was the hope of England and France to send soldiers to help the little Belgian army before the Germans had advanced very far into

King Albert's country. But the Germans had swept clean across Belgium, to within a few miles of France, at a place called Mons, before a small British army under Sir John French came with help. The brave thing about the Belgians is, that they never waited for help. They went right to their frontier, to the fortress city of Liège, to meet the Germans in battle for the defense of their country and their honor.

Of course the Germans greatly outnumbered this gallant little Belgian army. Though Liège was considered a very strong fortress, and hard to take, it fell before the great siege guns of the enemy which were fired from a greater distance than the guns of the fortress could reach. From this place, right across Belgium, the Germans drove the Belgian army, and the British and the French too, when they came up to fight the invaders.

The great German General Staff had planned the passage through Belgium in so many days. In the first place it did not suppose that the Belgians would have the courage to oppose the Kaiser's army, and in the second, it was convinced that if they did, the powerful troops of the empire would defeat the Belgians very rapidly and pass on. The Germans, as well as the rest of the world, were very much surprised when the heroic little army of Belgium delayed the enemy from across the Rhine many days, and thoroughly upset their plans to get into France and capture Paris within six weeks.

You have heard of the defense of the narrow pass of Thermopylæ in ancient Greece, where a handful of

Spartans under Leonidas held back the Persian host under Xerxes, and saved Greece from the Asiatic conqueror. Well, that is what the Belgians did in those August days in 1914, they held the pass of Thermopylæ against the Germans for the freedom of our civilization. They did this by fighting so bravely that the Germans had to take more time than they could spare to defeat them, and this gave the Allies time to make their plans and prepare for the glorious and triumphant Battle of the Marne, which you shall hear about.

The Germans grew very angry when they realized what the little Belgian army had done to their plan of campaign. They would teach them a lesson, they said, so that neither they, nor any other country, would dare stand in their way. And so the people, the innocent old men and women and children, were made to suffer unspeakable misery and death, just because their sons and husbands and brothers had been brave and staunch in battle against the enemy. The helpless citizens of Belgium had to pay the price of their soldiers' heroism. But they were no less heroic than their kin on the battlefield in what they had to endure, as you shall see. What cowards and brutes the Germans were to take their revenge in the manner they did! No sooner had they taken Liège, and moved on through the towns and cities of the country, then they began to pillage and burn them, holding hostages, hanging and shooting citizens, and imposing heavy fines in money for the least protest or act the people made in defense of their rights in war. The Ger-

man officers regarded such protests as a violation of their authority. And the acts the Germans committed were against all the rules of warfare as conducted by civilized nations; they were cruel and barbarous to the extreme.

Julius Cæsar, the Roman conqueror, in writing about his campaigns in Gaul, which two thousand years ago was that part of Europe extending from the Pyrenees to the Rhine, said—"Horum omnium fortissimi sunt Belgæ." These words in our language mean, that "Of all, the bravest are the Belgians." Cæsar, the mighty Roman conqueror, was recording from his own experience, for the world of his day, and afterwards, to know that the Belgians were the bravest fighters he had met in battle. The Germans found this to be as true in August, 1914, as Cæsar did in the years 58-50 B. C. when his Roman legions conquered Gaul.

But surely no victor has proved less generous towards their foes than the Germans. After an army had been defeated it does little good to destroy cities and enslave the people, and to murder them and take away their means of livelihood. An enemy may hope to break the spirit of a people by doing these things, as the Germans thought they were doing; but the spirit of a people is very much harder to destroy than cities.

So, when the Kaiser's troops sacked the city of Louvain with its university and famous library, Namur, Dinant, Givet, Malines, Aerschot, Termonde and many other places including Ypres with its wonderful Town Hall; and when they shot hundreds and hundreds of help-

less and innocent citizens, and sent thousands of men, women and young girls back into Germany to work in the munitions factories and on the farms; and when they stole millions of dollars' worth of machinery from the Belgian factories, and tools from the farms, and furniture from the houses and sent them back into Germany too, for their own use, they thought surely these miserable Belgians would ask for mercy, and would be willing to do everything they were told, to help the German army defeat the enemy, among whom was the Belgians' own king. But the Belgians would do nothing of the kind.

Though starving and poorly clothed in thin and ragged garments, without work, eternally watched, arrested and put in prison for the most innocent offenses, and made to wait on the German officers as if they were slaves, the Belgian people never ceased to wait and hope for deliverance from the brutal and tyrannic conqueror. All through the German occupation of the country they published a paper called *Libre Belge,* that is, Free Belgium, denouncing the brutal rule of the oppressor. This paper circulated from hand to hand among the people, and though the Germans tried very hard to find out where and how it was published, they never succeeded in doing so.

Among the many brave and noble men who worked and suffered for the Belgians were four whose deeds stand out above the rest. Two of these were Belgians and two Americans. They remained in the country laboring with the German governor and his officers, to see that the people got as much justice as possible. Of course, when

America entered the war against Germany, the Americans had to leave. These four men were Cardinal Mercier, Archbishop of Malines, Burgomaster Max of Brussels, Herbert Hoover, the head of the American Commission for Belgian Relief, and the Honorable Brand Whitlock, the American Minister at Brussels. I cannot begin to tell you what these noble men did to relieve the Belgians of their misery, and how in doing what they did they were driven to exasperation and despair, and subjected to personal danger, in dealing with the brutal and untruthful German officials.

Some of the people of Belgium when the Germans first invaded the country were able to escape and went to live in France and England. But the greater number who remained could do nothing but suffer and wait. If they could only have worked like the people in France, where the German armies had not reached, and in England, in the factories or on the farms for their armies, it would have helped them to bear their suffering. Instead they were forced to be idle at home, or were taken away from their homes and families into Germany where they were made to work very hard for the enemy. All about them their homes were in ruins. Everywhere was nothing but despair and pain.

One of the greatest tragedies of the German occupation of Belgium was the execution of Edith Cavell, an Englishwoman who had lived many years in Brussels training young Belgian girls to become nurses. This noble woman was accused of helping some Belgian men to es-

cape from the country. Her trial and execution formed one of the most revolting acts committed in the war. Edith Cavell has left a memory that the world will never forget.

Yet neither their faith in God nor their love of country was lost. Though the nation as one voice cried, "O Lord, how long, how long?" this faith in God and love of country kept their spirits free. The great Cardinal Mercier said, "Our country is not a mere concourse of persons or of families inhabiting the same soil, but an association of living souls." And souls cannot be destroyed as you destroy the body. Which was very, very true of Belgium.

There was a little bit of Belgium in the southwest corner below Nieuport and Dixmude, running from the seacoast to the French border, that the Germans were never able to take. Although the Belgian government moved its capital to Havre, France, after it had given up Brussels and was driven out of Antwerp, King Albert and his little army held on to this small bit of their native land all through the war. The people, suffering as they were, took this as a good omen that God would some day give them back the rest of their beloved country.

And this, as you know, was true. After more than four years of frightful suffering, with unbroken spirits and great rejoicings, the people welcomed back their King and Queen from exile, and before them lay crushed and helpless the once mighty and arrogant armies of the German empire.

CHAPTER II

THE STORY OF SERBIA

THE little nation of Serbia was another victim of the war that was invaded and made to suffer like Belgium. But unlike Belgium, Serbia had a taste of victory over the enemy before her defeat and devastation.

The story of the people of Serbia, however, is quite different from that of the Belgians in their heroism under defeat and invasion. This was due to the difference in character and temperament of the two peoples.

Belgium, as you have often heard it said, was the "cockpit of Europe," that is to say, for several hundred years, it was in that country where so many of the great battles of Spain, Holland, France, England and Prussia were fought. The people of Belgium were not especially a warlike nation, and had nothing to do with these great and many battles that were fought on their soil. They are an industrious race, interested in art and literature for which many of them are famous.

The Serbians are a peasant people, and have always been very warlike. They have also one of the finest folk or ballad literatures of all Europe. Long, long ago Serbia was a proud and independent kingdom under King

Stephen Dushan, and included all the territory that is now Bulgaria, Macedonia, Albania, Thessaly and northern Greece. Under Lazar I their independence was lost, for the Turks defeated this prince and his nobles in the Battle of Kossovo, in 1389. The Serbians were ruled by the Turks for several hundred years until early in the nineteenth century, when they began fighting to regain their independence. After many efforts they succeeded. The Serbians also had a great deal of trouble with their rulers, whom they sometimes elected, and at other times permitted to succeed to the throne in regular succession. The present ruler, King Peter Karageorgevitch, succeeded to the throne in 1903, when King Alexander and Queen Draga were assassinated because their royal sympathies were favorable to the political interests of Austria.

It was four months after Austria declared war against Serbia that she made a serious attempt to capture the Serbian capital, Belgrade, and invade the country. Every day, however, during this period, the Austrians bombarded Belgrade which was right across the river Danube that divided the two countries. The Austrians had tried, early in August, to enter the country from Bosnia to the west of Belgrade, but were completely defeated near a place called Semendra. They made no further attempt until December, when, after capturing Belgrade, they pushed south as far as the town of Valievo. Here the Serbians defeated the Austrians so badly that it was a humiliating

disaster and rout for the invaders. The Serbs retook their capital, and awaited the next turn of events.

They had to wait almost a year before their turn came to go the way that Belgium went, under the iron heel of the invader. Early in October, Austro-German troops under the command of General von Mackensen began the third invasion of the little country. The Serbs fought gallantly, but a few days after the battle began, Bulgaria declared war against Serbia, and attacked her in the rear. Early in December, exactly two months after the invasion, the armies of Austria, Germany and Bulgaria had driven the Serbs entirely out of their country.

It was a pitiful sight, and a picture that is familiar to all of us, of the aged King Peter, drawn in an ordinary cart by oxen, dragging along the mountainous snow-covered roads and over perilous bridges, leading the broken fragments of his army out of his country, to take refuge among friends. This sorrowful old king went to Italy to live and brood over the memories of his former state, with a heart full of deep anguish for the plight and sufferings of his people. This was after the Serbian government was driven from Scutari in Albania, which was captured by the Austrians in January, 1916. This same month the French had occupied the Greek Island of Corfu, in the Mediterranean Sea, where what was left of the Serbian army was taken and reorganized.

Perhaps you do not know that a race of people who live close to the soil have a reserved and brooding nature. They have what we call fatalism, that is, an acceptance

of fate whatever it is, and a belief that it cannot be changed. They suffer and rejoice alike, with the same calm bearing. Especially do they seem to bear suffering of the intensest kind as a matter of course. There is no nervous expression of deep feeling. Life is a series of hard, stern duties, and death a release from them, full of happy promises of rest and peace. The Serbians are a people of this kind.

The heroism of such a people is in their stolid resistance to calamity. When the Austro-Germans and Bulgars conquered Serbia and occupied the country, they pillaged and burned towns and cities, and hanged and tortured the inhabitants who remained. Yet, unlike the Belgians, the Serbs showed no defiant disposition. There was no newspaper secretly published to keep alive the hope and spirit of freedom. They had no priest like the great Cardinal Mercier to tell Austrian, German, or Bulgar governor that he was a tyrant acting against the justice of God and man, nor a municipal officer like Burgomaster Max who stuck to his post in the midst of dangers. You must not believe, that because of this, the Serbians are not a brave people. They are, indeed. Their history proves this. But as I have told you, they are as a nation a peasant race who silently and stubbornly accepts the lot of fate. The physical agony they endured was quite as terrible as the Belgians', but it forced no cry to the lips nor awakened the mind in a beseeching self-pity to God or man. They starved to death with scarcely a murmur; badly clothed against the winter cold, they made no complaints; they would stand with silent terror and misery in

the eyes when made by the enemy to witness the execution of their kin, and when the terrible epidemic of typhus fever ravaged the nation, they died like dumb and helpless animals.

It was hard to tell during the terrible years before the tide of victory turned in favor of the Allies whether the spirit of these hardy people was broken or not. In the greater events of the war that took place, they were all but forgotten. Their aged king, almost blind, and crippled, was at Salonica in Greece, under protection of the Allied armies, while what remained of the Serbian army was being reorganized on the island of Corfu.

"I believe," said King Peter of Serbia, "in the liberty of Serbia, as I believe in God. It was the dream of my youth. It was for that I fought throughout manhood. It has become the faith of the twilight of my life. I live only to see Serbia free. I pray that God may let me live until the day of redemption of my people. On that day I am ready to die, if the Lord wills. I have struggled a great deal in my life, and am tired, bruised and broken from it, but I will see, I shall see, this triumph. I shall not die before the victory of my country."

And his hope came true. After a long rest, with new uniforms, and plenty of guns and ammunition, the Serbian army once more took the field against the Bulgarians. They fought as gallantly as ever. The Germans and Austrians had withdrawn most of their troops from Serbia, as they were badly needed against the French and British in France, and against the Italians in Italy. On Novem-

ber 19, 1916, the Serbians, with the help of the British and French, recaptured Monastir, an important city at the extreme southern end of their country near the Greek border. Here, with the exception of minor advances to the north and east, they remained for many months. But on September 16, 1918, the Allied armies of Serbians, French, English, Italians, and Greeks, under the command of the French general, Franchet D'Esperey, advanced on an eighty-five mile front east of Monastir. In ten days the Bulgarians were so disastrously defeated that they asked for an armistice.

The Serbians, like the Belgians, were once more restored to their country. They had fought and suffered and died, and had been driven out of their country like the Belgians, but not for the same reason nor with the same effect upon the world. The experience they had, while not so overwhelming and prolonged, had come to them a number of times in the course of their long history. They were happy to have their liberty again, but the possession lacked the thrill that made the Belgians mad with joy.

CHAPTER III

THE STORY OF FRANCE AND HER COLONIES

GLORIOUS FRANCE! How can one tell her story as it ought to be told? How can one paint the suffering and the sacrifice, the heroism and the triumph of the French people in the Great War? What the French people became through the most perilous experience in their history, sent a thrill of admiration through the world quite as exultant as the thrill that came from victory in the Battle of the Marne, and the immortal defense of Verdun. The victory at the Marne was a miracle, men say, as was the determination which said "They shall not pass" at Verdun; and if this was so, then France herself was a miracle in the Great War.

An American poet, Henry van Dyke, has sung that if you want to name Glory, "give me the name of France." And there is no one who will deny that all the luster in that word belongs to France.

Now the history of France records other periods when glory shone from the nation. You will remember that the great Louis XIV was called the "Sun King" because he was a magnificent monarch who made France the mistress of Europe; and the great Napoleon Bonaparte whose name and deeds were like magic, before whom kings

bowed and nations paid fealty, created an empire that dazzled the world. Indeed France has been enthroned on a dazzling pinnacle of power more often than any other European nation, ever since the day when King Clovis, towards the end of the fifth century, made Paris his capital and ruled over the territory of all the Franks.

A nation of great warriors, the French have not only been glorious in arms, but in things of the spirit, in law, in art and literature; but deeper than all is a national temperament which gives to all these a quality of *élan,* that is dash, impetuosity, ardor, which is irresistible. The most sensitive of all peoples, the French respond to influences very quickly; but their mind, which is the most logical of any people's, and their wit, which has the most point, soon puts them in a sane and balanced mood.

More different in traits of character and habit than almost any nation in Europe, the French people are of one mind and soul in the things of life that are the most worth while. The most important of these are the ideals of Liberty, Equality, and Fraternity, the trinity of republicanism which was born out of the storm and anguish of the French Revolution. Breton, Norman, Picardian, Gasçon, Basque, Provençal, whatever they are at root, they are all Frenchmen united as one people when their national ideals are threatened.

These ideals were threatened as never before when the Germans attacked France in the summer of 1914, and the Chamber of Deputies, representing the people, immediately declared a *Sacré Unité.* That is to say, the nation

formed a sacred union of all the people, setting aside its domestic quarrels and differences, in defense of the national ideals. It was very typical of the French to do this. It was to tell the world that France stood as one family in faith and defiance.

The undying spirit of France flowed like a fiery passion in the blood of the nation. The first sign of it was, as I have said, that simple but earnest statement of a sacred union of all the people to defend their ideals. But the height of this spirit was reached in the tragedy that every French man and woman was to know in the throes of a terrible war.

This spirit was one which, crushed to the very depths of anguish and despair, would not acknowledge defeat. Out of those depths it rose like a wounded bird into the sunlight of triumph and victory.

You will learn some day what a wonderful city is Paris, the capital of France. And you will hear it said by every one who is not a Frenchman, that Paris *is* France. There is good reason for that saying, because all that is great in France comes to us *through* Paris. It is the seat of the government, the center of literature and art and science, and every Frenchman with ambition goes to Paris to win success with the talents that God has given him. But Paris is no more France than New York is America or London is England. And it is very important that you should remember this in understanding the spirit of the French people, and what they endured and achieved in the Great War.

This beautiful city on the banks of the Seine in time of peace is the ideal of all France, and the whole nation gives its best talents to make it beautiful and famous. All France serves Paris and is judged by what Paris does. But in times of war Paris serves all France. She reflects the character and spirit of the French people. She drops the masquerade she wears in peace times and shows the shining countenance of the sober, thrifty, indomitable, heroic French *nation.*

Because the world had judged France by Paris which was gay and frivolous, it was said that the French people were both weak and wicked, and that a severe war would send France to destruction and doom. The Germans believed this very thoroughly, and that when their great armies rolled across the frontier and captured Paris, it would come to pass. And while the rest of the world hoped this was not so, they feared it might be true. For, you see, there were other nations besides the Germans who regarded all the people of France from what they knew of the frivolous and pleasure-loving citizens of Paris. So when, in spite of great disadvantages, France was not destroyed, but defended herself gallantly, the world marveled at the *re-birth* of the French people. They were not re-born, it was Paris alone that changed. Her gorgeous body that was built for pleasure and that tasted pleasure of every sort was filled with a new spirit. Paris that had always laughed now prayed; her eyes that had been filled with the care-free and dancing forms of life now beheld sorrows; but her whole figure was full of an

heroic dignity. This is what the French people gave in spirit to Paris, and the world was astounded as at a miracle.

What I have been trying to tell you about France is, that from time immemorial there is a life beneath the surface which comes to view and directs the destiny of the nation in every great crisis. It lies still in ordinary times as if it did not exist. But when it awakes, what heroism is displayed, what a thrill it sends through the world! Roland and his horn, Joan of Arc and her visions were an expression of it in the past just as the *Marseillaise* throbbing from the throats of the French soldiers going over the top was an expression of its spirit in their hearts during the Great War. It is sometimes very hard for other nations to understand what this hidden life is. I do not know whether I can make you understand when I say it is devotion. Devotion to home and country which, with the French, has the fervor of holiness. The peoples of other nations love their homes and their country quite as deeply as the French do, but the French love of home and country has a quality of devotion that is very different. They not only have it, but show it. To a Frenchman home and country are one. When he fights to protect them, he is fighting in a religious cause. War becomes holy, wonders are performed.

The wonders performed by the French people are far too many to be told in a single chapter. For many and many years poets, story-writers and historians will be telling the glorious deeds of the French people; how the

poilu, that is the common soldier, went to the front and gave all without a murmur, but with the love of France in his heart and the song of faith and victory on his lips, and how his kin at home without complaint at his absence or loss gave all they had of soul and body to feed and arm him for battle; how in the midst of the country's ruin, and the oppression of the enemy, they neither winced nor bowed, but silently and patiently waited for deliverance.

All were alike in the time of trial and pain, rich and poor having but one thought—the salvation of France. It is told of a high-born French lady that when she was condoled with for the loss of her fourth son in battle, she replied: "Why do you pity me? Rather congratulate me that I had four sons to give to France." This was the spirit of the rich as well as the poor.

The rich gave up their fine houses to the government where wounded soldiers might be tended with care and comfort, and ladies with their own delicate hands nursed their bruised and broken countrymen of every class. They went up to the line of battle to serve with the Red Cross, driving ambulances, and performing numberless deeds of mercy and tenderness. They went into the munitions factory and on the farm with the sisters of the poor to work for the armies. There was no difference between them in their desire to do all in their power to help poor stricken France. They went about these duties with grief locked in their hearts for the loved ones who had been killed at the front. Only and for a time did the women of France

show their grief in the outward forms of mourning. They regarded the sorrows that had come to them as national and not personal. And for the sake of the France they loved, it was hidden, hidden so the country could arise in all her strength unhampered by idle tears and needless regret.

The men were giving life and limb in the trenches without complaint, and the women were not going to be less heroic in their battles at home. The undying spirit of France was in this determination to fight the war to victory.

CHAPTER IV

THE STORY OF GREAT BRITAIN AND HER COLONIES

THE war brought to the people of Great Britain a different mood than it brought to the people of France, for their attitude was different. Although they were not attacked directly, they felt that it was only a question of time, should the Germans become victorious, before they would suffer the same kind of attack as France. They went into the war for a moral purpose, in defense of Belgium, which had been wrongfully invaded, and fulfilled that purpose as a question of honor. While the French suffered the shock of the German armies, the British suffered their poisonous hatred. Of course, as the war went on, the English armies were made to feel the terrible power of Germany's military might. But the people of England, much as they were naturally concerned about the fortunes of their soldiers, were roused to indignation by the acts of the German government and its supporters, as well as by the barbarity of the German army in the field. Germany had little fear that the British army would be hard to deal with. What the Kaiser called "the contemptible little British army" which he met with in Belgium in late August, 1914, was but the forerunner of that immense British army

which the nation gathered and poured into France and Flanders during the next three years. What goaded the German hatred was the powerful navy which stood in the way of ultimate victory. Germany tried her best, by violating all the rules of warfare, to get at England behind the shield of this immense naval power; and it was in this way that the war came to have a direct effect upon the people of Great Britain.

The bombing of London and of other places by Zeppelins and airplanes, the bombardment of open towns on the east coast of England, the torpedoing and sinking of merchant and passenger ships by the German U-boats, brought the reality of the war more forcefully to the British people than anything else.

The mere killing of Englishmen or Irishmen or Scotchmen on the battlefields of France and Flanders was taken, as one might say, as a matter of course by the unemotional people of the British Isles; but they were filled with a mood entirely new and different when the innocent victims of German frightfulness on land and sea were gathered in. This was a method of warfare altogether different from what it was believed possible for a civilized nation to make. The people of Great Britain opened their eyes to a peril such as they had never known before. In its meaning it was quite the same as the peril which had come to France, but the people took it differently. They did so because the war was not on their own soil. But while it was not on their own soil, it was, in a sense, at their very doors on the sea. And, what was more, it some-

times crossed their doorway and struck England at her hearthside.

For nearly a thousand years, you must remember, no foe had put foot in England. In the old days it was plain to see how this could never be with England in command of the ocean. England still commanded the ocean, but modern inventions had brought into use new engines of warfare which fought under the sea as well as in the air; and against these there had been no known and adequate defense. Though England's mighty navy stood guardian around the Island Kingdom, these new agents of destruction could slip by them out of sight beneath the waves, and in the air above the clouds. So England was made to suffer in many ways that she did not think possible. Her fleet of merchantmen was reduced, and that meant scarcity of food for her people. Her cities, unprotected by fortifications, could be attacked at night by Zeppelins and innocent men, women and children killed, and property destroyed. All of this happened, as you know; and its effect upon the British was such as to bring out of them an entirely new expression of their national character.

The British, unlike any of the European nations, have a small regular army. In every war, being a free people, the government relied upon voluntary enlistment to make up its armies. The first deep effect upon Great Britain made by the war was the overthrow of this system and the resort to conscription. While it is true that every time London was raided by Zeppelins, or one of the seacoast

towns was bombarded by German warships, men in anger and a spirit of revenge joined the colors in great numbers, they were not sufficient for the task that England had to accomplish. They were civilians, of course. A long course of military training was necessary to make them fit to fight the well-drilled and organized armies of Germany. The British government had a difficult time in making the people agree to conscription. The Englishman loves his liberty of action, wants to make his own decisions as to what he shall do with his lawful rights of citizenship. In breaking his purpose to keep these rights, and forcing his own consent to give them into the keeping of the government through conscription, was the first sign of the realization of the British people of what confronted them in the war.

Though the British people gave up their liberties, you must not think they did so with the same agreeable temper as the French. To do so was unlike the British way of doing things. The British are a stubborn people. You may regard this as a defect in their character, but it is also in a measure a quality of their glory. For a Briton to grumble in doing a thing is something of a joke. The more he grumbles, the harder he works, the harder he fights, the more willing he is to sacrifice everything. As a rule, he is slow to begin, but he never knows when to stop once he does begin. As a rule he shows no great emotion when he succeeds; on the other hand, he is absolutely blind to defeat, that is to say, when most people come to the end of their resources and courage and

strength and are willing to patch up a quarrel, the Briton is beginning in dead earnest to vanquish his foe. Whatever he does, he wants to do in his own way, and one of the most notable aspects of the British people at war was this spirit that they showed of trying, under restraint, to assert their individual rights.

In contrast to the French people who leaped as one nation to defend themselves against the attack of an enemy, the British people had to be roused to action. Do not misunderstand me when I say this. The spirit of the British was as quick as that of any nation to do its duty, but it must be taken into consideration that this sense of duty was chivalrous, that is to say, the first thought of the people was in fighting another's cause, not their own. It took them some time to realize that this duty was vital and not a mere matter of honor; but even then, strange as it may seem, the British acted no differently as a people when they knew that they were fighting for their very existence instead of fighting, as they thought, to save a small nation from extinction.

You see, the British were quite willing to give all once they felt it was their duty, but for a long time they wanted to give all on their own terms and in their own way. Their statesmen could not lead them as the statesmen of France led the French by a mere expression of the needs and necessities of the situation; the British statesmen had sometimes to cajole, sometimes to threaten, and sometimes to coerce the people into doing what was necessary to win the war. The people did not take kindly to having

their privileges interfered with. This was quite as true of one class as of another. The nobility objected to being overtaxed quite as much as the workman objected to having his quantity of beer reduced. Sometimes the government had to make compromises with the people to get their consent to make measures that were necessary to carry on the war successfully.

In the past ten or fifteen years, the workingmen of England, through their trade unions, have become very powerful. They have representatives in Parliament and in the Cabinet. As a class they were against war, because they felt that the burdens of war fell mostly upon their shoulders. Among them as well as among certain men of great intellect were a number of what were called "conscientious objectors." As such, they were far less bothersome than the men of intellect and position.

Now what I have told you about the British as a people is not nearly so serious as it might be with other races, with the Russians, for instance, as you will come to learn, who brought their country to ruin because they were unused to personal liberty and power; but behind the British this contention for personal rights was traditional, that is to say, through the long and proud history of Great Britain the rights of the people were recognized through the freedom of speech and press. Behind it all, however, was a very solid and indomitable patriotism. In the end, they would always do what was wanted and what was right to protect and enhance the glory of the British empire, and that was what this spirit of the British people

rose to in the great war. In this war they experienced what no Briton had experienced in the course of hundreds of years of British history. English men, women, and children on English soil became the victims of a murderous enemy. English towns and cities, in their proud isolation, were reached and suffered destructive attack. The fair and gentle landscape of the English countryside was scarred by shot and shell. It was then that the British grit their teeth and made war.

Great Britain raised an army that was the marvel of the world; a civilian army. Her women went into munition factories or on the farm, taking the places of the men who had gone to France. Men who were unfit for service did their "bit" in ways that it was unbelievable they could, or would ever be called upon to do. Into the shipyards they went to build ships to take the place of those that were fast being destroyed by submarines. England had to supply her Allies with coal and iron, and her men worked unceasingly to increase the output so she could have enough of both these materials for her own needs, which were enormous, and for the other countries who fought at her side; yet she went about this with a sort of grim humor. There was nothing of that wistful and visionary glow that shone from the spirit of the French, the spirit that had the radiance of faith and devotion in it, a glory which drew the praise and admiration of the world. The British instead expressed themselves in a rough and somewhat indifferent manner. They were too determined to be much concerned about their deter-

mination. There was nothing of the heroic in their hazard, it was merely a job to be done, and they were going to see the job through, take what it would. They saw no glory in the job and were quick to resent any admiration for successfully putting through "a dirty piece of business." They knew that their life as a nation was changing; the foundations of their institutions, but not of their character, were shifting; and a people, as they are, opposed to change, they made no outcry, because they felt a new order would be the best thing for "old England."

The British empire is a confederation of self-governing dominions, and crown colonies. This empire, so mighty on paper, was supposed in reality to be but a very loose structure. "It will fall to pieces at the first blow by a powerful enemy," thought the Germans; but what I have told you about the people of the British Isles is also true of the people in England's great colonial possessions. Self-governing dependencies, they have come to the help of the mother country in their own way. Diverse as were the races, far away as they were from England, this empire which spread all over the world was knit together under Mother England as one people in fighting the enemy. The colonies sent their sons across the seven seas to Europe, Asia, and Africa to fight for England; those who stayed at home, men and women both, gave of their labor and their wealth to save and preserve the empire. If Canada, like England, conscribed her citizens, and Australia and New Zealand refused to do so, it made no difference according to their populations, for they

made a hearty and willing sacrifice of their manhood. So it was that the far-severed peoples of Canada, Australia, India, New Zealand, and the South African Republics all poured their blood and treasure into the lap of Mother England that she might still be their nourisher and protector.

CHAPTER V

THE STORY OF RUSSIA

IT would be difficult for you to understand the story of Russia unless at the very start you were impressed with the fact that Russia was a thorough autocracy. You may have been a little puzzled why Russia was fighting side by side with such free countries as England and France. This I have already explained to you in earlier chapters. The Czar of the Russians was a despot, his government carried on very largely under his personal rule in spite of the fact that not so long ago he granted to the people a representative government in the Duma, which was supposed to have some resemblance to the British Parliament or the Congress of the United States. The Czar could not help being a despot, because all his ancestors had been, and they, as well as he, believed it was the way to keep the Russian empire together and make it powerful. In spite of this belief, the people of Russia, who besides the Russians themselves consisted of the Ukrainians or little Russians in the south near the Black Sea, the Poles in Poland, the Lithuanians, and the Finns in the north, were always troublesome, because they desired more and truer liberties than were granted them. The vast population of Russia are mostly peasants, who

live an agricultural life; but among them are many men and women of great intellect and aspiring ambitions. With these, some of the nobility sympathized, and they were associated together in societies which from time to time attempted to overthrow the tyrannic government of the Czar. Russian history is full of revolutions and assassinations. Longer and more consistently than perhaps any other people in Europe, the oppressed inhabitants of Russia have struggled for their freedom.

The Russian people welcomed the Great War as a means of helping them in their fight for freedom. They were thoroughly behind their government in this instance, because their government, they thought, was itself battling in behalf of freedom and doing so in comradeship with the two freest countries in Europe. It doesn't really much matter that the Russian government itself had quite another purpose in view for which it was using millions of its subjects. We cannot discredit the purpose of the Czar and his ministers for backing little Serbia in her quarrel with Austria; but, on the other hand, it was purely for position and prestige among the other nations that the Czar led his people into the war. As you can well see, each had its own purpose in fighting, the government to keep its influence and prestige in the Balkans; the people, in the hope of victory, to win more freedom at home. For it is true that after every war that Russia has fought in the last half century, the people have made demands for a fuller share in the government and more secure rights of citizenship. Sometimes the demand has been

made peacefully, and sometimes through revolution, as happened after the Russo-Japanese War in 1905. At any rate, the Russian people went into the war with great hopes, only to have those hopes dashed, and maddened by their disappointment they brought on the ruin of the once mighty empire of the Czar.

The first two years of the war the Russian armies fought magnificently and the people backed them with every sacrifice and devotion. As an agricultural people, the Russians were unable to supply themselves with munitions. This vast country in northeastern Europe and northern Asia was separated from her allies by both sea and land routes. Only a part of the year did she have a port in Europe that was clear of ice where ships could sail with arms. The port of Archangel on the White Sea was a long way from the Atlantic Ocean, from which her friends could reach her. The exit to the Mediterranean Sea was closed by the Turks at the Dardanelles. Russia, you see, for all her vast territory, her many, many millions of people, was at a great disadvantage in being out of contact with her allies. They needed her foodstuffs, her grains quite as much as she needed their arms and munitions, and all along the borders of the Black Sea were stored great quantities of wheat which could not be moved because there was no safe or open way to ship it overseas to England and France and Italy.

Russia was well prepared, however, for war in 1914, providing the war was to be a short one. It was due to no blindness on the part of her statesmen that the war

outlasted the period for which she was prepared, for it was the belief of the statesmen and soldiers in all the belligerent countries with one exception that the war would be a short one. Lord Kitchener, the famous British general and Secretary of War, predicted at the beginning that the war would last at least three years.

It took the Russians less than two years to feel the effects of their distance from their allies and their hemmed-in position. Supplies for the army became exhausted and the soldiers were compelled to fight with empty guns, often without any guns at all, and no artillery preparation or aid. The soldiers were very poorly clothed and suffered greatly from the cold at the extreme northern end of the front and in the Carpathian Mountains. Of all the countries at war Russia had the poorest railroad communication and equipment, and these soon broke down. The deplorable condition of the railroads made it impossible to take food up to the front and the troops had to go into battle hungry; nor could reënforcements be transferred with speed and secrecy from one part of the line to another, when and where they were most needed.

The Russian soldier was both docile and brave, and in spite of such conditions the armies, under the command of Grand Duke Nicholas, fought with great courage and won many victories during the first two years of the war. The man power of the empire was enormous, far more than could be drilled and equipped and put into the field. Badly as the Russians had been treated by their ruler and the clique of government officials who were of the no-

bility, they fought with a fanatic zeal for "Holy Russia," the land they loved. The Russian peasant is quite ignorant but with an intensely religious temperament. In this mood and with his slow, brooding nature, he made, while kept under strict discipline, a stubborn and dangerous enemy.

The government of Russia betrayed the armies and the people. There were members of the government who were pro-German and helped the enemy greatly by failing to supply the armies with their needs. The government also was fearful for its own power. It knew that if Russia and her Allies won the war the people would demand a greater freedom and its tyrannic power would be overthrown. So, when a series of defeats and disasters overtook the Russian armies and they were thrown out of Galicia and the Carpathian passes, when Warsaw was captured and Russian Poland was in the hands of the Germans, and a German army stood battering at the gates of Riga in the north on the road to Petrograd, the military power of the empire was broken. The Czar took personal command of the armies, relieving Duke Nicholas, and for a while there was a firm but fitful stand made by the Russians many, many miles within their own frontiers, from Riga in to the north to Dubno near the Austrian border in the south. It was after this that Lord Kitchener, the British Secretary of State for War, started on a secret mission to Russia to help the Russians in their dilemma, and was lost with his entire staff at sea off the Orkney Islands at the north of Scotland. The ship he was on,

the *Hampshire,* some say struck a mine in a storm; but it has also been rumored that the Empress of Russia, who was intensely pro-German, informed the Germans of Lord Kitchener's mission, and that they sent a submarine to sink the ship he sailed on. The world, however, was astounded at the news of the disaster that overtook the famous British general and his staff. The loss no doubt had a great effect upon the Russian situation, because the wise and stern counsel of the British soldier might have saved the complete collapse of the Russian empire.

The people of Russia soon learned that they had been betrayed and began to grumble very loudly against the Czar and his ministers. To still this dissatisfaction the Czar did a very foolish thing in suspending the sittings of the Duma. This was in March, 1917. No sooner did the Czar commit this foolish act when a revolution began at Petrograd, which overthrew the imperial government and forced the Czar to abdicate the throne. The revolutionary government that came into power was strongly in favor of continuing the war on the side of the Allies. The men who composed the revolutionary government were earnest patriots and had the welfare of Russia very much at heart. Along with their government, however, was created a Council of Workingmen and Soldiers who served in an executive capacity the interests of the army and the people. This council decided to direct all the affairs of the Russians. They were very much against the war and demanded peace. The men of the revolutionary government did not deal with this organization as firmly as they

might have done. Discipline in the army had been destroyed, the soldiers demanding that they should by debate and vote plan the method and place of campaign. They demanded that there should be absolute equality among the officers and men, and the common soldiers refused to salute their officers. Nothing good could come out of this undisciplined and chaotic condition. The officials at Petrograd could not cope with it and were soon overthrown by a counter-revolution which put into power men of unscrupulous ambitions who, under the guise of obtaining for the people their full rights, were nothing more than the agents of Germany. Men like Lenine and Trotsky, doing work for Germany, now ruled Russia and tumbled the once mighty empire into an abyss of ruin.

They brought Russia, as you know, to accept a disgraceful and subservient peace from Germany. Through this peace Germany had won a great victory in the east. Russia was helpless in the throes of anarchy, an anarchy that was kept alive by the Bolsheviki. If that were all, the world might have had only a very great sympathy and deep pity for the so-called Russian Republic. In the place of the mighty and populous empire were a number of governments, for Russia was broken up, the Ukraine and Finns and others declaring their separate independence and setting up republics. All this, however, caused great alarm to the Allied Nations, for it exposed them to the redoubled might of Germany's military power. Though Germany agreed under the terms of her peace with Russia not to withdraw her troops from the eastern front and

send them to the western front, she immediately began to do so. So France and England had to face a greatly strengthened enemy, and all because the smoldering nature of the Russian people, so long suppressed with tyranny, had at the first taste of freedom fallen a victim to its own excesses. The people of Russia who were faithful to the ideals for which they had been fighting could neither help themselves nor be reached to be helped by their friends, the French and British. Torn, helpless, bleeding, Russia was left to her own fate and the mercy of Germany.

CHAPTER VI

THE STORY OF ITALY

THE Italian people, like the French, have won the admiration of the world for their heroism, both in battle and at home under circumstances that were very difficult. They did not enter the war until May 23, 1915, but their entry on the side of the Allies was an evidence of Germany's guilt in provoking war. You have been told of the Alliance between Italy and Germany and Austria in which the three nations agreed to fight together in a common defense. Under these terms Italy should have stood with her former allies in the Great War had she not known the secret intentions of the Teutonic empires to attack their neighbors. When Germany realized Italy's intention not to join her in an aggressive conflict, she did everything in her power to keep her neutral. The Italian people, however, knew that their interests were not safe in staying neutral. Italy had a grievance against Austria, who still held under her rule provinces which were largely inhabited by people of the Italian race. To liberate these people and reunite them with the kingdom was a passion of the Italians, so Italy entered the war with this purpose in view. She had to rely upon England and France, more particularly

England, for some very vital necessities while carrying on the war. Italy has no coal or iron, and these are very essential for maunfacturing and military purposes. Only her northern provinces of Venetia and Lombardy were industrial. The rest of the kingdom, running like a leg with its foot resting on the blue Mediterranean, was a paradise of olive vineyards and art. Under her blue skies with laughing faces and singing lips, the Italian people lived with passionate dreams, hallowed by a thousand years of historical associations. One of their most vivid dreams was liberty. Liberty had been idealized for them by the romantic Garibaldi, the magnetic Mazzini, and the brilliant Cavour.

The Italians are a people easily inflamed, and nothing inflames them so fiercely as their national hopes. For these they will sacrifice everything of their small store. They went into the war on the burning words that fell from the lips of their great poet, D'Annunzio, who went about exhorting them to deeds of valor and sacrifice. Nothing was more typical of the character of the Italian people than the career of this poet during the war. A lover of ease and luxury, a dreamer of fervent dreams, one who loved the earth and its pageantry of emotions, he, the man of middle age, became an aviator. Into the skies he soared, carrying his message of inspiration to the people and to the troops, to stand valiantly for Italy and her sacred traditions. He was typical of the Italian people because in a sense they, too, were breaking from their moorings; they were on a venture as perilous in its way as

the frail airplane which D'Annunzio balanced and drove at terrific speed through the skies. It might crash to earth at any moment and a great venture come to ruin. Beyond their bravery and passion, which no one could doubt, beyond the justice of their cause and the hope of redeeming their brothers under the Austrian yoke, the Italian people possessed none of the great necessities, as I have said, with which to make war against a strong enemy. This is true in the light of the one great disaster which overcame the armies and the nation when the Austrians and Germans together swept through to the rear of the troops on the Carso Plateau, pushing them back across the Venetian Plain, and almost captured Venice. This defeat all but demoralized the whole nation. Up to the time when it happened, the Italians had won by hard fighting in the mountains of the north and the high ridges of the east a steady, victorious advance. Underneath the emotions of the Italians was a hardy nature which enabled them to endure battle in the most difficult mountainous places. Up the steep mountainsides they drew their artillery and supplies. Across deep ravines and wide valleys they established their battle lines, taking their positions on cliffs and ledges where only the eagles make their home. A nation that has such soldiers as these intrepid fighters was difficult to defeat. For nearly two years the world asked what the Italians had accomplished. They scarcely knew or could realize what was done by the Italian armies until Gorizia was captured. The extent, then, of their victories was made plain, not by the amount

of ground that was taken or the number of men that were involved; but by the almost impassable difficulty of the battlefields. The fruits, however, of these victories soon tasted bitter to the nation. The Italian people as well as the armies along the Carso Plateau were betrayed, and by the poison of propaganda. It was an evidence of how easy it was to inflame the Italian nature. In the industrial regions of northern Italy, through Venetia and Lombardy, were serious troubles owing to the scarcity of food and employment among the people. The Germans flew over the Italian lines dropping pamphlets with the information that the government was shooting down the relatives of the soldiers. This so affected the soldiers, who at once believed these lies, that they left the battle-front to protect their kin. It was but another one of Germany's dishonest and unfair ways of winning her battles. When the Italians left their trenches on that part of the line to the east of Undine, all the Germans had to do was to walk through and attack the armies on the Carso Plateau from the rear in the south. It is well to remember this episode because the great disaster which then befell the Italian armies had a great effect upon the people. It brought forth one of the noblest feats of endurance of any nation in the war. It was soon learned by the soldiers that what the Germans had said about their kin being shot by the government was false; but it was too late, however, to prevent the tragedy that fell upon the nation. The people rallied as their soldiers rallied and stopped the invader before the gates of Venice. Their defeat unified the whole

kingdom in its determination for victory. They rose above the disaster by sheer force of spirit, rich only in the faith of the Italian cause, in the given promise to redeem from the Austrian yoke their brothers in the Trentino, Trieste, and the Istrian Peninsula. This they kept, and Italy, as you know, stands whole, free, and united for the first time in her history.

CHAPTER VII

THE STORY OF ROUMANIA

ROUMANIA was the third of the small nations to be invaded and overcome by the German military machine. She declared war against Austria at the request of Russia, and was betrayed by the Russians, who failed, or did not intend, to keep their promise of military aid. Roumania was one of the three Balkan states whose territory was very valuable to either side. Though she had a German king like Bulgaria, the Roumanians were of a Latin stock and very much attached to France. The country was the most populous of all the Balkan states. The chief cause for her entering the war, however, was to regain possession of Transylvania on the other side of the Transylvanian Alps, which were inhabited by a large number of Roumanians under the rule of the Austro-Hungarian empire. Like so many of the smaller nations in the war, her aims were to realize the national unity of all her people. The Russian province of Bessarabia, which at one time belonged to Roumania, was also promised her for her help in the war. Of course, every one thought that the purpose of the Allies in having Roumania in the war was to give Russia an opportunity to cross Roumania's territory, attack Bulgaria, and open

a pathway to Greece and Salonica, where a large Allied army was gathered to advance upon Bulgaria and Turkey; but this purpose, if it ever existed, was never put into action. The Russians made no move to help the Roumanians as was promised when they started the invasion of Transylvania.

The story of Roumania's share in the war is a short one. Its importance is due to the great possibilities which Roumania offered to the Allied cause if Russia had kept her agreement, and it had been possible for France and England to send their troops into the country. It is important also for revealing successful working of the German secret agents; for there is no doubt that it was through the command of Germany that Russia lured the Roumanians into the war and then deserted them. The course of events, if they do not absolutely prove, certainly point in this direction.

One hundred days after Roumania declared war against Austria, the Germans were in Bucharest, the capital of Roumania. Roumania started the war bravely by invading Transylvania through three or four passes of the Transylvanian Alps, capturing two or three important cities. They were allowed to advance without much opposition, and then suddenly the German general, von Falkenhayn, attacked in the north and von Mackensen, with Bulgarians and Germans under his command, advanced in the south across the Danube and through the Dobrudja, capturing the city of Constantia on the Black

Sea. The Allies had to stand by helpless and see little Roumania crushed.

It was the story over again of Belgium and Serbia, but the Roumanians never ceased, as long as Russia was in the war, to be hopeful. They had removed their capital to Jassy, near the Russian border, and there reorganized their army in preparation for any event that might turn in their favor. When Russia made her disgraceful treaty with Germany at Brest-Litovsk, the German general, von Mackensen, presented the Roumanians with peace terms and demanded their acceptance. Even then the brave Roumanians refused to submit. They held out for a long time, in face of the most hopeless circumstances, and made peace with the enemy only when the complete destruction of their country was threatened.

One of the most heroic figures of the entire war was Queen Marie of Roumania. To the outside world she has been the pitiful and appealing spokesman of the people's suffering, all the more so by her own bereavement and loss of her youngest child, whose little body she left in its native earth to be defiled by the conqueror's feet, when the Court was compelled to flee from Bucharest. She went among her people as a common woman, dropping her queenly state as she dropped her royal garments, working in the hospitals, nursing the wounded, and going in and out among the stricken homes of the peasants, comforting them with her sympathy and sustaining their King, she kept the spirit of the Roumanian people firm spirits with her hope. Even more than her husband, the

and hopeful in the faith that their country would be redeemed from the iron grip of the invader and that once again they would live in peace and in the possession of all that was dear to their freedom. This brave and beautiful woman has set an example for all queens who might be temporarily without a country and made to endure the sacrifices that are endured by her lowest subject.

Roumania was the only one of the Allied countries except Russia whose government was subjected to the red terror of Bolshevism from without, and had to endure its attack. After her enforced peace with Germany, the Roumanians were obliged to contend with the Russian Revolutionists in the Ukraine, who sought to dominate the nation and win it over to their rule of anarchy. These revolutionists, you must remember, were supposedly once the friends of the Roumanians; the Russians, you see, served the little nation a bad turn at both ends. First the Imperial Government betrayed and deserted them, secondly the Revolutionists, who overturned that government, sought to poison them with their madness and anarchy. It was extremely hard for this courageous nation to have suffered these experiences. Surrounded by her enemies on all sides, the Roumanians showed the undaunted spirit of the Latin in their fortitude. They accepted the terms of the German conquest because it was a physical thing that could not be escaped for the time being, although they were confident of their future release from the bondage; but they would not submit to the poison that came trickling out of Russia, because that meant death

to the soul of the nation, and could be escaped, since their spirits were neither weak nor shameless enough to tolerate the ideas of the Russian Revolution. So Roumania, broken in body, but erect in soul, stood within her iron gate of Defeat until the Allies came with their key of Victory to release her.

CHAPTER VIII

THE STORY OF THE UNITED STATES

THE circumstances which led to the entry of the United States into the war need not be discussed in any detail. It is only necessary to bear in mind two facts. The first is, that Germany made war upon us and so provoked us to defend ourselves; the second is, that we made war for an ideal and not for national or material profit of any kind. I ought, perhaps, to make it clear that we did fight for *national profit,* which meant that we fought to keep and exercise our country's liberty of life and action. It was more a privilege than a profit, however, because it was something we already had and did not want to lose. There was no material ambition in having this purpose because it was an ideal one, and we were willing to share the fruits of it with all the world. Germany had nothing that we wanted to take away from her which was once ours, or that we wished to weaken because it threatened our supremacy in certain directions, like a colony or a navy. She was possessed of an immoral and uncivilized idea, and *that* we wished to destroy; the idea of militarism which was a poison to other nations and their freedom. As long as this poison was in her possession civilization would remain unhealthy with fear and

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"THE LIFE OF CIVILIZATION IS IN YOUR HANDS," SAID ROOSEVELT TO THE SOLDIERS

worry and nervous watchfulness lest she should suddenly, and in the dark, force it to the lips of mankind. We wished to get rid of this poison not merely for ourselves alone but for all the other nations who were nearer to her hand than we. As far away as we were from her brutal fingers, we felt them, through her submarines, creeping, creeping slowly through the dark up to our throats, and at a time too when we acted with all fairness and impartiality towards her; we simply were compelled in self-defense to push those fingers away before they throttled us. So we went to war to save our national life, and the lives of other nations. And we asked for no reward except this salvation.

Much of what happened before April 6, 1917, will be forgotten, or recalled from the dusty records of the government to guide historians in their arguments. The notes that passed between Washington and Berlin in controversy over the illegal attacks of the German U-boats will be forgotten. What will never be forgotten is the sinking of the *Lusitania,* and the *Sussex* and the *Arabic,* on which American citizens lost their lives. These acts were war pure and simple against an unoffending nation, and by a nation that took the pains after each of these deeds to express friendship for us. Never was the government of a great nation so patient and forgiving in the face of such crimes, as our government during the two long enduring years between the sinking of the *Lusitania* and the declaration of war by the Congress of the United States.

What followed this declaration will always be a vivid page in the history of the American people. The American people went on a crusade to liberate the world. The men from every State in the Union who served under General Pershing in the American Expeditionary Force in France, you have heard called crusaders; because they went as the men of the Middle Ages went to the Holy Land to do battle with the Unbelievers for the sacred tomb of Christ at Jerusalem. It was a voluntary and self-sacrificing pilgrimage. Not only the men of the A. E. F., but the entire American people were crusaders. Theirs was a voluntary and self-sacrificing pilgrimage of the spirit. This spirit leapt in the shining armor of domestic denials and renunciations to do battle for the great cause of liberty. On the battlefields of Europe Freedom was stricken and the monster of Tyranny stood ready with drawn sword to pierce her through. America heard her piteous call for help and sent her sons whose blood averted the sword's point and enabled her to rise triumphant. The monster Tyranny in chasing Freedom across the fair lands of the world to destroy her, had devastated city and countryside, and heaped in ruins the harvest-fields and the factories, and America was asked to give of her treasure to feed and clothe, to provide for comfort and industry, and to heal both body and mind. And these things America labored to do, at the same time she carried on her own gigantic task of preparation and fighting.

What quantity of their treasure did the people sacri-

fice for the cause that America served? The treasure was threefold, of time, labor and money. Let us see.

The three most necessary things for the winning of the war were ships, munitions and food, and, like St. Paul, we might name the last as the greatest of these. As soon as the country was committed to war the government appointed a Council of National Defense, an organization which controlled all the domestic activities in connection with the war. The men who formed this council were men of very large private and professional interests, who patriotically gave them up to work for the government for "a dollar a year." Men like Mr. Schwab and Mr. Hurley took charge of the shipbuilding so that America might have sufficient ships to take troops, food and munitions overseas. Other equally patriotic Americans served on various boards under the Council of National Defense. The most important of these boards besides the Shipping Board, were the War Trade, Food and Fuel boards. The War Trade Board settled all problems that might arise concerning labor, maintaining production and settling disputes between workmen and owners. Mr. Hoover took care of the food situation, increasing production and conservation so that the nation might have enough for its needs and yet sufficient left over to help the needs of England, France and our other Allies. Dr. Garfield did the same for the production and conservation of fuel, such as coal and gasoline.

When we recall the meatless, wheatless, coalless days, and the gasolineless Sundays, we can now realize two

quite important facts about wartime America: the difficult tasks these administrators had to perform and the sacrifices made on the part of the people to win the war. Those days when we had to give up eating a certain kind of food or using a particular fuel were something of a joke to the people. But there was a serious intention behind the joke, which only showed how cheerfully the nation made its sacrifices.

In other ways, too, the people were made to feel the war at home. Luxuries were frowned upon, and, indeed, it was considered unpatriotic to grumble at the discomforts which had necessarily to be endured. The Americans, a travel-loving people, and with a vast and diverse country in which to journey, had to put up with a very much reduced system of transportation on steam and electric railways.

All these things had to do with what we call the economic side of fighting the war, that is as near as I can make you understand the physical battles at home. Without these battles being carried on victoriously, the soldiers in the trenches would have been quite helpless to carry out America's purpose to defeat the Kaiser and his nation of war worshipers.

These battles at home to build the treasures we so gladly accumulated for spending in a righteous though fearful cause would have only a part of its soldiers named and honored if I forgot to mention the women like your mothers and sisters, and also the children of America. Your mothers went to help at the Red Cross rooms, mak-

ing bandages for the wounded and knitting socks and sweaters for the men in the trenches; and your sisters who worked in the shops or on the farms; both, no doubt, gave time to the War Community Service, and at the Hostess House, where they made the young soldiers training to go overseas forget their loneliness and homesickness, with comforts and entertainments.

And you, Young America, what services were you ever willing to do, those of you who belonged to the Boy or Girl Scouts! If you did not belong to either of these noble organizations, you did your bit in the war-gardens; you were mindful not to waste food, and to be satisfied with ever so much less of the many things that you had been accustomed to in plenty. In school you learned to perform many tasks that were outside your regular studies, to raise money for the school to buy Liberty Bonds. In many ways you earned and saved pennies to buy War Saving Stamps. In every way, you, too, loyally aided your government to win the war, Young America, and it is proud of you!

And you were proud of your country, as you heard and saw day after day throughout eighteen months of war, what it was accomplishing in the building of ships, in the raising of food and money, and in the calling and sending of troops across the seas to fight for freedom. And how the pride in your hearts must have swelled as you thought that all this was done for an unselfish purpose.

Sometimes you were amazed at what the agents of your country's enemy were doing upon your own soil,

even before we were at war with him. For the newspapers told you of men trying to destroy bridges with dynamite, and blowing up munitions factories, causing tremendous loss in property and innocent lives. Then you were glad with a kind of holy thrill that *your* flag was leading a host of stalwart American youths of all creeds and races across the sea and floating in the smoke-filled and thunderous battle air beside the flags of England and France, to crush an enemy who would do such things. And can you realize what a host that was which your country sent to France? And how it kept gathering in the great camps from all the States of the Union, from Maine to Florida, from Massachusetts to California, to be drilled and sent, division after division, across the broad and rough Atlantic?

These men who went to fight in France against the Hun were the measure of the blood we willingly and unstintedly gave to the great cause. Congress passed a Selective Draft Bill shortly after war was declared which put nearly ten million young men at the call of the President, who is the Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy. The following year a second Draft Bill was passed, which extended the military age to forty-five years. This made the total number of men registered for military service 23,456,021. Of these 4,000,000 men were under arms when the war ended; 2,000,000 of these were in France, and hundreds of thousands went under fire.

What a splendid record for a peace-loving nation to make in so short a while! There had been a few far-

seeing prophets like General Leonard Wood and ex-President Roosevelt who warned us to prepare for the war that was coming nearer with every passing month of the years 1914, 1915 and 1916, but we failed to heed their voices as we should have done. Our neglect might have been very costly. But America knows how when the occasion calls to rise and meet it. She works like a giant to make good the opportunities that have passed. Her energy surprises the world. She is quick to learn what is needed to be done. She neither stops to fret nor regret, but throws her supple body and eager spirit into the doing of the task with a confidence that is half the achievement.

With a valor that surprised the veteran troops of England and France, our men did their duty. In many instances they did more than was expected of them. The Germans did not believe that men who were taken from the shop and office and peaceful professions, and given but a few months' training, would stand up against their own well-seasoned and disciplined troops. They learned from sorry experience that the Americans could not only stand but fight man to man. They saw their best troops badly defeated by the doughboys, who were tilling the farms, selling merchandise, or at a factory bench, and led by officers who had been poring over text-books in quiet college dormitories, or who had just hopefully begun their careers in business or the professions, when the German Crown Prince was vainly battering at the gates of Verdun.

At Seicheprey and Bouresches Wood our men were given that baptism of blood which at Belleau Wood and

Château-Thierry gave them the strength to stand like a wall and check the flood of gray Huns. At St. Mihiel they broke through the fiery barrier and they pierced the death-infested Forest of the Argonne, going through to stand before the iron city of Metz many hundred thousand strong, for the final blow against the military power of Germany.

These men paid in blood to vanquish an evil idea. Where they fell and stained the soil of a foreign land is sacred ground. Their memories will long be cherished not only by Americans, but by Frenchmen, Englishmen, Italians, and all the Allies with whom they stood. Their memories will be cherished because they fought for one thing, and one thing only—Freedom! The Freedom that would bring Peace and Security to the whole world!

CHAPTER IX

THE STORY OF GREECE

NO country gave the Allies more difficulties to solve than Greece. The people of Greece, under the leadership of Premier Venizelos, were on the side of the Allied cause, and justly too, not only because it was for their best interests, but because they owed it out of gratitude. England, France and Russia had helped Greece to secure her independence, which they agreed to protect. These countries also contributed sums of money for the personal use of the Greek sovereigns to help relieve the people of the expense of supporting the royal family.

King Constantine and his queen Louise, who was the sister of the German emperor, favored the cause of Germany very strongly. They influenced the court to support them and take their side against the people. The king worked very hard to maintain what is called a "beneficent neutrality" towards the Allies. Now a beneficent neutrality means that a government should show a little more favor in the way of doing little helpful things for a belligerent without actually fighting. In doing this King Constantine was really doing nothing more than expressing a sentiment that he did not practice, and merely as a

concession to the Greek people who desired to fight at the side of Serbia against Bulgaria. They were powerless to do more than express their condemnation at the action of the king, who was kept to his unpatriotic purpose by his bad-tempered German queen and the Kaiser's agents at his court.

After the second Balkan war when Serbia and Greece defeated Bulgaria, an agreement was made between the first two countries that they should aid each other in case of attack by another country. The king said that this agreement only applied to Bulgaria. It was his excuse to keep the country from going to war against Germany on the side of the Allies. But when Bulgaria entered the war, and attacked Serbia, and the people demanded that their word to Serbia be kept, the king still held out. He no longer sought to justify his action in dishonoring the promise to Serbia. With simple and dogged persistence he said that Germany was going to win the war, and pointing to the example of Belgium and Serbia, declared it was national suicide for Greece to fight against such a powerful enemy. It was for the best interest of Greece, he said, that he keep her out of the war.

No one believed this because all the time the king's actions showed what his intentions were. The Bulgars were allowed to occupy the fort at Kavala on Greek territory from which the Greek troops, adherents of Constantine's policy, were taken and sent into Germany. Before this event Great Britain had offered Greece the island of Cyprus to join in the war on the side of the Allies,

which she refused. It was humiliating to Great Britain to have her offer spurned by little Greece, whose protector she had been.

Constantine even went beyond his rights under the constitution to keep Greece neutral, or at least so long as was necessary until the time came, as he believed it would, when he could safely strike at the Allies. He suspended the sittings of the Greek Parliament and carried on the government through ministers who did his bidding. M. Venizelos, the great man of Greece, after a hopeless fight against the king and his party, fell from power. An election took place, and the people unmistakably expressed their wish to join in the war on the side of the Allies. So Venizelos was heartily supported by the country, and the king had no other right under the constitution but to reappoint him Premier, that he might enact the people's will. Instead the king in direct violation of his position, appointed another statesman, M. Skouloudis, to carry out the royal will. M. Venizelos went to Salonica, where a large Allied army was encamped, and set up a Provisional Government. All Greece was disrupted by the dispute between the king and his former minister.

I have mentioned the Allied army at Salonica, a seaport in Greek Macedonia on the Gulf of Salonica. This army was composed of British, French, Italian, and Serbian troops, and had gathered there to go to the aid of Serbia. But when this was out of the question it remained, because the Allies were afraid to withdraw it owing to the treacherous attitude of King Constantine.

This vast army might have been used to advance upon Bulgaria, but it became known that should it move north over the perilous mountainous country to the Bulgarian border, the communications with its base at Salonica could not be securely maintained, and Constantine, at the command of Germany, would attack it in the rear. So the Salonica army remained idle during the greater part of the war.

When the attitude of King Constantine became intolerable the Allies decided to act. The Allies did not wish to make the people suffer for the behavior of their king, even though he had taken over their rights in his own person and stood between them and their real friends, the French and British. They did for a while blockade the Greek coast and thus cut off many supplies the country needed. But it was soon realized that this was not the way to keep the Greeks as their friends, and so the blockade was lifted. A more effective way was to get rid of King Constantine and his German queen for the people's sake and the Allies' interests. So France, in behalf of the Allies, sent an Admiral from one of her warships to Athens to demand the abdication of the king. He submitted, and with his queen retired to Switzerland, where he lived in disgraced and defeated exile.

Under the new king, Alexander, Venizelos came into power, reorganized the government and the army and threw the country into the war on the side of the Allies. And so Greece at last shared in the defeat of Bulgaria and the Allied victory.

CHAPTER X

THE STORY OF THE OTHER BELLIGERENTS

I HAVE tried to give you some idea of the nations at war whose troops fought in Europe. Some of these nations, like England, France, Russia, and Italy, sent troops to fight in Asia and Africa. The main theater of conflict, however, was in Europe. The fiercest and most important battles were fought on the western front, but there were other nations who were belligerents as well, in the sense that they were on the side of the Allies against Germany, who did not send any troops to Europe, and indeed, in many instances, never engaged in battle at all. It may be a little hard to make you understand just what their position in the Great War was from a military point of view. Yet they all had a more or less potent influence upon the outcome of the war. They contributed in one way or another to final victory. What they did not do by actually sending troops to fight in the trenches, they made up in other ways. At home, the smaller of these nations did their share in supplying what they could of the many necessities that were needed. Others, the larger and more populous nations, sent large numbers of laborers to work behind the lines in France and in the Balkans. This was true of China, which sent

many thousands of her citizens to perform the laborious tasks that the armies needed done. Many of the natives of South Africa, as well as the coolies of India, rendered this same service to the Allied cause. Without them many of the soldiers of England and France would not have been free to fight in the trenches. While there is no romance or glamor attached to what they did, we all owe them a debt of gratitude, for they helped in this way to make victory possible.

One of these belligerents, whose story I have not told as a separate nation because it doesn't differ very materially from that of Serbia, is Montenegro. Indeed her position was identical with that of Serbia, and she suffered the same kind of invasion and defeat. This tiny kingdom in the Balkans is one of the most intrepid nations in Europe, who long ago won its independence, and behind the impenetrable wall of its mountainous country was able to keep it for centuries against the attacks of the Turks. The invasion and defeat inflicted by the Austrians was due in a large measure to the destructive power of modern artillery, which was able to reach into the very heart of the mountains and overcome the heroic resistance of the defenders.

The other small countries, however, who had either declared war against Germany or severed relations, were too weak from a military point of view or too far away to make it worth while to send such small numbers of troops as they had to the European battlefields. One exception, of course, must be made of Portugal. Separated

as she was from France by Spain, a neutral country, and compelled to transport troops by sea to the battlefields, Portugal sent her soldiers and took an honorable part in the fighting. The countries like Siam, Liberia, Cuba, and Nicaragua merely kept their troops, such as they had, on a war footing at home. Most of these countries, and especially the Latin republics of the western hemisphere, took the stand against Germany as a sympathetic approval of the attitude of the United States in declaring war against Germany. It was a method of showing their approval that America was fighting for the highest ideal, and under that ideal they sought protection. Thus it was that such countries as Bolivia, Costa Rica, Ecuador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Peru, and San Domingo severed relations with the Imperial German Government. Even Brazil, a country with territory larger than the United States, and with a population of nearly 25,000,000 people, did not, although she was provoked by the attacks and sinking of her merchant ships by the German U-boats, declare war against Germany until some months after the United States. Her part in the war was largely the suppression of the German colonists in South America, who did everything they could to direct public opinion in favor of the German cause, and to interfere with the contributions of food and material which the South American Republics were sending to the Allies. Only one, however, of the other nations was a first-class power, and that was Japan. The situation in regard to Japan was very peculiar. She had long been an ally of Great Britain; and

it was chiefly on account of this that she entered the war. Her duty was to look out after British interests in the far east and to keep the waters of the eastern hemisphere free from German warships in the early part of the struggle.

Her first move, however, after Japan declared war against Germany was to land at Chiou-chau and advance upon Tsing-tau, a German colony in China, which was captured within two months. This was practically the extent of the Japanese fighting on land during nearly the entire course of the war. Towards the end they landed troops in Siberia for the protection of the Allied stores against the Bolsheviki.

Japan manufactured large quantities of munitions most of which were sent to Russia. The war made the Japanese very rich. It is true that she did help her Allies very greatly by her command of the waters of the Pacific and Indian Ocean and the China Sea. She also drove Germany out of the smaller islands of the South Pacific; but beyond this, her active participation in the war was very slight.

You may wonder, perhaps, why it was that Japan did not send troops to fight in Europe. She had a very large army, well trained and equipped, which might have been very useful to France and England in the early days of the war. The reason is easily explained. In the first place, despite the very real assistance her soldiers in Europe might have given, it was very much against the wish of the English government, in particular, that Japan

should be more closely concerned with European affairs. Since she had grown to be a first-class power, Japan had refrained from interfering with purely European affairs; and in return, wished to be recognized as supreme in the east; that is to say, since the war with Russia in which she had been victorious, Japan began to extend her influence over China and Korea and did not wish the European nations in any way to weaken this influence. The war gave her an opportunity to get rid of the German power in the east; and when she had driven them out of Chiou-chau, she was satisfied to keep her soldiers at home and have her people work, rather than fight, for the Allies. Her Allies were equally satisfied with this arrangement. There have been some people who said that the war might have been won sooner had Japanese troops been sent to fight in Europe. Indeed, there were certain public men in England who proposed to their government the advisability of inviting the Japanese to send an army to fight beside the French and British.

To be perfectly honest, the English government was a little afraid to put itself under such an obligation to the Japanese. Friends as they were and closely bound together as they were in preserving peace in the east, the English did not care to give the Japanese a voice in the settlement of purely European affairs, because they were an eastern people, and vastly different in race and tradition. The Japanese in consequence gained more in a material way and sacrificed less, than any of the Great Powers engaged in the war. The position they meant to hold in

the east was plainly shown by the demands they made upon China in 1915 when all the Allies were too busy fighting Germany to interfere. These demands, to which helpless China was obliged to submit, made Japan her master. With the kingdom of Korea also under her dominion, and with the German colonies which came into her hands, Japan became lord of the mighty east. No one can say that Japan failed to do her duty towards her Allies, but those duties were simple and small, and compared to the benefits which she received from the war,—the immensely increased prosperity to her people, her undisputed leadership of all the people in the far east,—her reward was immense.

CHAPTER XI

THE STORY OF THE NEUTRALS

WHEN the war ended there were few important nations and no really first-class power that had remained neutral throughout the conflict. From 1914 to 1917, America was the only great nation who did so. The course of events which finally drew America into the war had long before robbed Germany of any sympathy which the people of the world might have had for her. It is perfectly true to say that there were no peoples among the nations that were not actually fighting with Germany, who had sympathy for her. Her acts had killed any such feeling among the people all over the world. But while the peoples of the world were not neutral in feeling, their governments had to maintain a strict neutrality. This was the only lawful attitude they could take and keep out of war; yet this lawful attitude was sometimes but a very thin disguise for certain governments. It was notable that the courts of Sweden and Spain were pro-German. Many reasons have been given to explain this attitude on their part. It was very hard for the people of these two countries to endure the attitude of their governments, because Germany did not hesitate to violate their rights on sea when it suited her purpose. After the

United States entered the war Spain was the strongest of all the neutral nations. It was all that the Spanish government could do from time to time to keep the people of Spain from forcing it into war on the side of the Allies. One fact, however, strengthened the hand of the government in its pro-German feeling, and that was the question of Gibraltar. The Spanish people hesitated to fight on the side of a nation, whom they still regarded in wrongful possession of Gibraltar; and the Spanish statesmen could always hold this as a check against the over-enthusiasm of the Spanish people in the Allied cause. On the other hand, Spain had little to fear, beyond the occasional sinking of her merchant ships, from an attack by the German army, because there was redoubtable France to stand as a wall between Spain and Germany. The case was quite different from the smaller neutral nations who bordered or were not far from the German frontier, such as Switzerland, Holland, Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Of all these countries, Switzerland was in the most dangerous position between the belligerent countries; and yet she was the safest, because of her mountainous territory. The Swiss, alone among the small neutrals that lay in the shadow of the German sword, stood bravely and defiantly ready to defend herself. All during the war as a neutral, she was the asylum of almost every kind of refugee from the embattled nations. She was a place of exile and hospitality, and a channel of communication. Through it, important enemy news not connected with the battlefield was exchanged. Switzerland, as you know, borders France, Ger-

many and Italy, and where her frontiers touch these countries, the inhabitants are largely French, Italian, and German. Naturally these inhabitants sympathized with their country in the conflict, and it was all that the Swiss government could do to prevent them, by act or word, from compromising her neutrality. It was through Switzerland that streamed from time to time prisoners of war exchanged by the combatants. Nothing was more pathetic than this picture of the prisoners being returned from Germany, broken in health after their sad experiences in German prisons, and greeted with deep emotion by their countrymen at the Swiss frontier. The neutrality of no other country was made to serve the humane needs of all the belligerents as that of Switzerland. Monarchs, statesmen, philosophers, artists, and socialists who could not approve of war, retired into Switzerland, from all countries, where they found security and peace.

Of all the small neutrals, Holland lived constantly under the fear of Germany all through the war. She had to depend upon Germany for coal, and Germany took advantage and forced Holland to import for her needs great quantities of food and material. The same was quite true of Denmark and Sweden, but not to the same extent as in the case of Holland. There are facts to prove that the importation of foodstuffs into Holland was far in excess of what was needed by the small population of the country. As nothing could get into Germany direct, owing to the British blockade, Holland, as well as Denmark, was reshipping food into Germany in spite of her promises,

Germany also demanded of Holland great quantities of sand and gravel which were necessary for her war needs. It was for these materials that Germany was supposed to exchange coal, her supply of which, before the war, Holland had obtained from England. The coal was in reality exchanged for food which Holland obtained from the United States.

When the United States realized this fact, the traffic had been going on for some time. Measures were adopted to stop it. The ships of Holland were seized and kept in American ports. This angered the Germans quite as much as it did the Dutch, but they were helpless. Little Holland was in a very difficult position. Too weak to do anything in her self-defense, she stoutly declared on more than one occasion that she stood ready to defend her neutrality against either the Germans or the Allies, if attacked.

Denmark, too, helped to furnish the Germans with foodstuffs, though she did not make as profitable a business of it as the Dutch. Sweden was another of these small neutrals who carried on a prosperous trade with Germany, but came nearer than any other to being forced into the war against her will. Sweden had a bitter controversy with England owing to the interference of the British navy with Swedish ships, which were searched for contraband. Public opinion in Sweden on account of this was much aroused and sympathy towards the German cause was openly expressed. This in spite of the fact that the German submarines did not spare any Swedish ship which

it thought was carrying food to England; nor, indeed, did the German submarines hesitate to sink Norwegian, Danish or Dutch ships when they saw fit to do so.

The five European countries, Denmark, Holland, Norway, Spain, and Switzerland were the only neutrals after 1917 who could possibly have changed the course of the war by joining one side or the other of the belligerents. The other neutrals, far distant from the scene of conflict, like Abyssinia in Africa, Afghanistan in Asia, Argentina or Chile or Paraguay in South America, could have but little effect one way or the other. But the Great War was such an enormous thing, reaching out everywhere in unexpected places that even these far distant neutrals were themselves affected as the conflict waged, swaying in favor of first one side and then the other. The neutral nations were eight less in number than the belligerents; but, as I have said, there was not among them a real first-class power. It is the little group of four, Holland, Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, whose population together does not exceed twelve million, that is, one-fifth less than the population of Mexico, that remained, in defiance of fate, neutral throughout the war. It is certain that had any of these countries entered the war against Germany, she would have crushed it as she crushed Belgium and Serbia. It would simply be a case of another small nation satisfying the German hunger for conquest, which could not be satisfied by enemies who were her equal. Except for the fact of having saved their country from ruin and

desolation, the people of these neutral countries suffered almost as badly as many of the countries who were at war. To have survived fear of the Hunnish terror was in itself a heroic endurance and that was what they did.

PART III

HOW THE WAR WAS FOUGHT

CHAPTER I

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1914

ON THE WESTERN FRONT

The Drive for Paris

I AM going to try and tell you as simply as possible how the war was fought. It is not a very easy task to do this for reasons which, should I attempt to explain, would confuse for you the main outlines of action. There are a few things that you ought to understand at the beginning, for they will make clear to you, as this narrative of the battles unfolds, what was the object of the armies on both sides. As a step to this understanding you must realize that unlike the battles in the wars of the past, the terrific battles of the Great War were not measured by hours but by weeks and months. A campaign in the old wars was a series of skirmishes with long periods of absolute inactivity, and was finally decided in a great battle lasting a few hours or a day at most. The campaigns of the Great War consisted of one or two immense battles lasting for weeks and months, which were called "offensives," and between these offensives were furious local attacks that lasted for days at a time. Inactivity was only applied to the troops when they re-

mained on guard in the trenches. But the armies cannot be said as a whole to be inactive, because the artillery on both sides was forever bombarding each other's lines, which made it necessary to keep on the lookout day and night for attack. You must realize that the battlefield was one long irregular line which was called No Man's Land, on each side of which was a system of trenches running back for many miles. This line on the western front ran from the Belgium coast on the North Sea to the borders of Switzerland, a distance of nearly five hundred miles. On the eastern front it ran from the Baltic Sea in northern Russia to the borders of Roumania in the south, a distance of over a thousand miles. And on the other fronts in Europe and Asia where the armies were entrenched, this line ran in varying lengths as the battles swayed in favor of one side or the other.

It is important as we follow the fighting to keep this line well in mind. It was the purpose of each army to break through the side of this line which was held by the enemy. The entrenched system of warfare, which was perfected with such skill by every constructive and protective means known, made this very difficult to do. To attack the line in front was very costly in human life, and even with the heaviest artillery preparation, was only partially successful. Yet it was the purpose of both sides for over three years after the Battle of the Aisne when trench warfare began, to break through with the intention of flanking the enemy. To flank the enemy was, after breaking through, to attack him on the side, cut off his

communications of supplies and reënforcements, have him in a trap and thus kill and capture his troops.

This line, as I have said, ran very irregularly, and there existed deep pockets, or what were called "salients" in the enemy's positions. The dangerous salients were those that had a much greater depth than breadth; that is, the base from side to side was much shorter than the distance from the base to the top. This exposed an army to an attack on both flanks which, if successful, crushed the salient in. A general had to get his troops, supplies and artillery out before this happened, or his loss would be very great. The Germans operated this flanking strategy on an immense scale, which was popularly known as the "pincer movement"; the jaws of the pincers would in some cases be two or three hundred miles apart. They were very much more successful in operating this pincer movement on the eastern and Balkan fronts than on the western front which did not allow the room for action on such a large scale. The British and French, too, were always making small attacks for the purpose of rectifying, that is, in straightening out, their lines to prevent the Germans, from making successful flank attacks. The Germans, however, held a number of deep salients in the Allied lines, notably the one at Ypres and St. Mihiel. The Ypres salient was the scene of much bloody fighting before it was flattened.

It took the belligerents on both sides over three years to realize that this line which was one continuous battle-front, could not be permanently broken. A gap would

be made in the line, but before the enemy could widen it to any extent to get through large enough bodies of troops to make flanking attacks to the right and left, a second system of trenches would hold him up until reënforcements arrived to counter-attack and drive him back. Thus the line would be mended again and made as strong as ever, and the effort had to be repeated all over.

A determined offensive with thousands of guns of all calibers firing thousands and thousands of tons of high explosives would prepare the way for infantry advances day after day for weeks and months. The ground gained would be very small for the terrible sacrifice of life and the costly expenditure of shells. At the end of four months as at the Battle of the Somme, or of six months as at the Battle of Verdun, there would be a number of villages and towns taken within a few miles of territory to show what the victor had won or lost. The claim of the victor was not in the miles he had advanced or the places taken; it was the loss he inflicted upon the enemy in casualties and prisoners that counted. And oh, how hard it is for us to grasp the extent of the losses! The hundreds and hundreds of thousands of men who were killed, wounded and taken prisoner, that this long, wavering line might not be permanently broken!

Perhaps you think I have said too much about this line which, on the western front, where the fiercest battles were fought and the largest number of men were engaged, swayed back and forth from the North Sea to Switzerland, for over four long, weary years. But I have not,

indeed, because that line was the symbol of hope to all the world. Millions and millions of men were bound to it like prisoners, and like prisoners sought time and again to win freedom by breaking through it, only to find that it would never break, only bend, bend, eternally bend and hold them in its iron grasp. And when as you follow the battles I shall describe, think of it as entangling for nearly four years the feet of the Allied armies until freeing themselves from it, the mighty genius of Marshal Foch swung it around the neck of Ludendorf's armies and choked the military might of imperial Germany to death.

When Germany began hostilities she planned to crush France by advancing upon Paris from three directions. Five armies came rolling down the line of the river Meuse and the Moselle, while a sixth and seventh, starting from Metz and Strassburg, were to pass the frontier in front of Nancy. It was a great converging movement, in which the seven armies were to meet in an encirclement of Paris and capture it. The Germans confidently expected that this would happen in about six weeks. With France defeated and put out of the war, Germany would then turn her attention to Russia, who, it was believed, would not be ready to fight, and defeat her in the same sharp and speedy fashion.

The First German army under General von Kluck, the Second under General von Bülow, the Third under General von Hausen, swept westward into Belgium; the Fourth under the Grand Duke of Würtemburg marched westward across Luxemburg and a corner of Belgium to

the French border; the Fifth under the German Crown Prince went across the lower end of Luxemburg and came out into France; the Sixth under Crown Prince Ruprecht of Bavaria, and the Seventh under General von Heeringen, we will leave for the moment in Lorraine and Alsace to meet the French advance. The general strategy of this whole movement was to sweep into France behind the great barrier fortresses of Toul, Epinal and Belfort. Passing through Belgium and Luxemburg the task was comparatively easy.

The three armies on the extreme right of the German line turned southwest from Brussels, Namur and Dinant towards the French frontier. The army on the extreme right wing under von Kluck met and defeated the gallant little Belgian army under King Albert at Visé. The Belgians made a stand in the fortress of Liège which the Germans captured, the Belgians retiring to Antwerp. Then the Germans turned southwest.

Let us return for a moment to the Sixth and Seventh German armies in Alsace and Lorraine. The French when hostilities began pushed an army across the border into the "Lost Provinces" and captured Altkirch and Mühlhausen. They lost this place by a surprise night attack, but regained it once more under the command of General Pau. At the same time other French troops were pouring over the crests of the Vosges towards the Rhine. The French people were much elated over these successes. France had expected that the Germans would attack her through Alsace-Lorraine, and these early suc-

cesses gave them, as it was supposed, a great advantage. The Germans did not contest this advance very strongly. It was not until the French reached Morhange that they met any considerable number of the enemy. Here they suffered a very heavy defeat, and were driven back across the frontier to make a stand at Nancy. This battle was fought on August 20th.

The French had realized by this time that the Germans were coming in force through Belgium and not across the Alsace-Lorraine border, which compelled them to change altogether their plan of campaign. The French armies had been defeated by the German Crown Prince near Virton, and the Duke of Würtemburg near Neufchâteau, and further north, a French army under Lanzerec and the British army under Sir John French had come into contact with the Germans at Charleroi and Mons. Both were defeated. All along the line the French had lost and were thrown back upon their own territory. General Joffre then ordered his armies north of Verdun to retreat. The Crown Prince had been stopped north of Verdun but his army had entered France as far south as St. Mihiel and north of Toul and Nancy. Here he was held. In front of Nancy, along the frontier southward, and over the border at Mülhausen, the French held under the severe attacks of the Germans in two terrific battles along the Grand Couronne. Here General DeCastelnau by a most heroic defense stopped the Germans from entering France from the east and linking up with the armies coming down from Belgium in the north. This fighting

was, in fact, the first stage of the Battle of the Marne. If the French had failed on the eastern frontier, it would have been impossible for them to make a stand on the Marne.

General Joffre now began the wonderful retreat of all the armies under his command, through Belgium and northern France. What his plans were no one knew, but that he had a plan was evident, because he would not, under the most favorable circumstances, let any of his armies attack. The retreat of the British from Mons was the most difficult of all. General von Kluck opposed General French, the British commander, and tried all the way across France to outflank him on his extreme left. For this purpose he sent his cavalry sweeping in a wide semicircle around Lille, La Bassée, Amiens and down to Senlis just to the northeast of Paris. But this vast effort the British withstood, fighting heroically behind shallow trenches and falling back in good order until they crossed the Marne, where they halted during the first days of September just below Coulommiers, southeast of Paris. On this long retreat many fierce engagements took place, but mercilessly the German armies came rolling on towards Paris as if nothing would stop them.

The first days of September found the French armies standing on a line just east of Paris to Verdun some forty or fifty miles within the French border opposite Metz in Lorraine. During the long retreat General Joffre had created two new armies, the Sixth and Ninth. One of these armies had been sent out of Paris in taxicabs by General Gallieni, the military governor of the capital, and put un-

der the command of General Manoury to attack von Kluck on his left flank which he left exposed. The other was placed under General Foch who took a position at the center of the long battle-line many miles from Paris at La Fère-Champenoise.

General Joffre brought his retreat to a halt and on the evening of September 5th, gave his famous order to advance. In an address to the commanders of all the armies he said, "The hour has come to advance at all costs and die where you stand rather than to give way." The Battle of the Marne had begun. The most decisive battle in the history of the world was fought, the battle that saved France and civilization by rolling the German hordes away from the gates of Paris.

The Battle of the Marne has been called a miracle. You remember that when the British were attacked by such overwhelming odds at Mons, when there seemed no hope of being saved from absolute destruction by the enemy, the soldiers said they saw a host of angels with long bows who attacked the Germans and sent them flying in fear and disorder. The angels of Mons may have been an apparition of the overwrought nerves and tired bodies of the defeated British; but it is a fact, nevertheless, that the British did escape destruction by a miracle, and this miracle was attributed to a host of angel bowmen. This legend cannot be explained. The miracle of the Marne can be. Though the Germans greatly outnumbered the French and British forces, the superior military genius of General Joffre and General Foch, and the heroic fight-

ing of their troops, turned what was a certain defeat into victory.

Von Kluck, who had a part of his army across the Marne after coming down across the base of Paris on the southeast, suddenly withdrew when he found Manoury's Sixth French army on his flank. The British ought to have attacked von Kluck before he re-crossed the Marne. They lost an opportunity for which they have been blamed. Had this opportunity been taken, von Kluck's army would have been wholly destroyed.

The battle raged for three days without any change, General Foch in the center at La Fère-Champenoise in command of the Ninth French army, suffering terribly from the attacks of von Hausen's Third German army. He was opposed by the famous crack troops of the Prussian Guard. On the evening of September 9th, the right wing of his army was in retreat, the center was beaten back, but his left stood firm. On his left he had stationed his Forty-second, or Iron Division, supported by Moroccan troops. These he held all the afternoon. The keen military genius of General Foch had discovered that the Prussian guards were divided in front of him by the marshes of St. Gond.

When von Kluck was attacked by Manoury on his flank and had moved up to meet it, he drew von Bülow's Second German army to the west to keep in touch with him. Then, likewise it drew von Hausen's right wing toward the west, and this left a gap in von Hausen's army near the marshes of St. Gond. When General Foch dis-

covered this gap, he sent the famous dispatch to General Joffre in which he said, "My center is beaten, my right retreats, but I attack." Around six o'clock in the afternoon of September 9th, he gave the command to his Iron Division to advance. They went through and routed von Hausen's Third German army. It was a glorious attack, and turned the tide of battle in favor of the French. The Germans began a retreat which continued all through the night and the next two days. The four German armies ran headlong for the river Aisne. Many prisoners were taken; the Germans left behind great quantities of ammunition and guns. The German retreat was so rapid that the French were unable to bring up their guns and ammunition to keep in touch with the enemy. They were also too exhausted to fight to keep the Germans from entrenching behind the river Aisne. On the next day, September 10th, the armies of the Crown Prince and the Duke of Würtemburg, which did not take part in the battle, were also compelled to retreat east of Verdun to keep in alignment with the German armies further west that had been defeated. It was the first victory that turned the conquering German armies away from Paris and changed for good the course of the war. France was thrilled by this great victory. For it, the world owes her a great debt of gratitude.

The Battle of Flanders and the Race for the Channel Ports

The blow at Paris was aimed for a decision—and the

Germans missed. At the Battle of the Aisne the French and British forces failed to drive the Germans out of their entrenchments. The enemy was contented to defend their position along this line while the bulk of their armies turned elsewhere to obtain a decision.

Foiled in their effort to take Paris and thrown back to the Aisne, it was at this time that the Germans first bombarded the cathedral of Rheims. The wantonness of this act shocked the world. This beautiful Gothic structure, a vision in stone of man's homage and faith in the Almighty, was by this barbarous deed of the Germans doomed to destruction. At intervals, all during the war, the enemy trained their guns upon the cathedral of Rheims, battering this precious monument of art and poetry into a pile of ruins.

Russia was causing considerable alarm by the progress her armies were making in the invasion of East Prussia. Before, however, the Germans turned to the east to dispose of the Russians, they made another effort to bring the campaign on the western front to a successful end before the winter set in. The Germans missed a wonderful opportunity in the drive through Belgium in not stopping long enough to capture the Channel ports of Dunkirk and Calais. They could have captured these with very little effort because neither the Belgian, British nor French armies were strong enough or in a position to defend these cities. So the Germans sent an army north to take Antwerp, one of the strongest fortified cities in Europe. What was left of the Belgian army was here. But although

helped by some Naval Reserves which the British sent to join the Belgians in defending the city, the forts protecting it could not withstand the giant howitzers that rained tons of explosives upon them. They fell, and the city itself was bombarded. The Germans entered Antwerp on October 8th, the Belgian army just making good its escape, with the help of British warships off shore, along a narrow strip of coast to Nieuport and Dixmude.

The intention of the Germans quickly became plain to General Joffre. Both sides began shifting armies from the line running east and west between the rivers Oise and Meuse, to a line running north from the Oise at Noyon through Arras, La Bassée, Lille, Ypres, and Dixmude to Nieuport on the North Sea.

The Battle of Flanders in which the Germans on one side and the Belgians, British and French on the other, fought for the possession of the Channel ports opened in October and was one of the most bitterly contested engagements of the whole war. General Foch who had achieved such a brilliant success at the Battle of the Marne was in supreme command of the Allied armies.

Calais had now become to the Germans what Paris had been, up to their defeat at the Marne. It was desired even more than Paris, for with Calais in their hands the Germans had a base for striking at England whom they hated more than any of their enemies. Gathering all the troops that she could muster, Germany sent a mighty host to hack her way through to the Channel. The French brought up their colonials, Senegalese, Turcos and

Moroccans, and the British brought Sikhs, Ghurkas and other Indian troops from her great eastern empire to fight for her on the muddy fields of Flanders.

The conflict began with a blow against the Belgians under the command of their king, Albert, who stood behind the Yser river at Nieuport. The Belgians defended their ground bravely for several days against far superior numbers of the enemy, until a British fleet standing off at sea along the coast threw shells from their heavy guns upon the Germans with great slaughter, and stopped their advance. Stopped here the Germans moved further inland and attacked again near Dixmude, midway between Nieuport and Ypres. Here they pressed the Belgians so hard that they opened the sluices and flooded the country. The Germans were drowned in great numbers and held back by the impassable barrier of water. This closed one phase of the Flanders struggle which is known as the Battle of the Yser. The Germans were in possession of Ostend and Nieuport on the North Sea, but the road to the Channel ports on this part of the front was blocked.

Farther eastward the Germans again renewed the attack, this time against the British and French around Ypres. They took Dixmude which they had battered to a pile of burning ruins, but were held there by the famous "Golden Lads" of Brittany. But on and on around Ypres the Germans came with a great determination to take the mellow old Flemish town and open a road to Calais. The slaughter here was beyond realization. The troops on both sides fought like demons. Back little by little the

British bent, throwing in their last men. Every man who could hold a gun was sent into the line, down to the laborers and the cooks. And the British held and their line was not broken. In utter despair at last the Germans gave up. It is said that with one more attack they would have broken through and opened the road to Calais. The last man had gone into the fray when the Germans gave it up as a hopeless task. When they told a German colonel, who was captured, that the British had sent in their reserves to the last man, he wept. Victory was in the very hands of the German command, and was lost because they did not dare to take the last chance. The Battle of Ypres had been won by that indomitable stubbornness of the British which did not know when it was beaten. Not since Waterloo had British manhood written such a glorious page in the military annals of the nation as it wrote in the first Battle of Ypres.

The Channel ports were safe. The road that Germany had hoped to open on which to reach them was blocked for good and all. She had shed unspeakable quantities of blood to no purpose. The armies from the North Sea to the borders of Switzerland were now in a deadlock that was to last for two years. The two great German efforts on the western front had failed. The drive on Paris had ended in a crushing defeat which in the end caused Germany to lose the war. The drive for Calais had been stopped in its tracks because of exhaustion and despair. The German General Staff turned its face towards Russia in the east.

On the Eastern Front

The Invasion of East Prussia

Contrary to the belief of Germany, Russia completed the mobilization of her armies in a short time. Germany threw all of her available strength into Belgium and France which left her eastern frontier without sufficient protection. It showed, too, how little the Germans feared the military power of the Slav empire. But Russia sprung a surprise upon the Teutons, and sent two armies to invade East Prussia. The first army under General Rennenkampf met and defeated the Germans under General von François at Insterburg on August 16th, and advanced to the gates of Koenigsberg, to which they laid siege. The second army under General Samsonov pushed westward across the northern end of the Masurian Lakes and defeated the Germans at a place called Frankenau. The success of the Russians alarmed the Kaiser very much, and he called from retirement an aged veteran of the Franco-Prussian war, General von Hindenburg, to command an army in East Prussia and drive the Russians out. Von Hindenburg had made a special study of East Prussian territory, and especially of the Masurian Lakes district, to deal with just such an invasion as the Russians had made. So the German General Staff raised as large an army as they could, drawing from the western front to do so, and sent von Hindenburg to deal with the Russians in East Prussia.

General Rennenkampf with the Army of the Niemen was investing Koenigsberg in the north. General Samsonov after his victory at Frankenau pushed on through the lake region of forest and marsh towards Allenstein. He had about 200,000 men, but owing to the conditions of the country they were separated on the march. On Wednesday, August 26th, von Hindenburg met the scattered Russian forces and everywhere drove in their advance guards. In a seven-day battle the Russians were finally beaten near the town of Tannenberg close to the Masurian marshes, after which the battle takes its name. This victory, reaching Berlin on the anniversary of the Battle of Sedan, was the first decisive one the Germans had won in the war, and the empire was thrilled from end to end. Von Hindenburg became the national hero, and the Emperor made him a Field Marshal and commander of all the German armies in the east.

After his victory at Tannenberg, the triumphant von Hindenburg sought to destroy the Russian army under General Rennenkampf who, on hearing the news of Samsonov's disaster, retreated behind the river Niemen in Russia. Here he received large reënforcements and waited for the Germans. They came, and began to build bridges on which to cross over and attack. But as fast as the bridges were built, the Russians hidden in their trenches would blow them up. This was repeated a number of times until von Hindenburg gave the order to retreat. Leaving the river Niemen the Germans had to pass through the forest of Augustovo which put them in a

difficult position for defense. The Russians immediately pursued and attacked the retreating Germans. They were badly defeated, losing 60,000 men in killed, wounded and prisoners.

The Russian Invasion of Galicia

The East Prussian venture was only a secondary interest to the Russians. Their real thrust was in the south through Galicia, where they hoped to break the Austrian power. It was necessary to keep the Germans busy in the north so they could not come to the aid of their ally. Von Hindenburg had unsuspectingly fallen in with this arrangement.

By the middle of August Russia had three armies moving towards the Austrian province of Galicia. The first was under General Ivanoff starting from its base at Brest-Litovsk, passing by Lublin to the frontier by the Vistula river, to the northwest of the Galician capital, Lemberg. This army was intended to block the unprotected gap between the Vistula and Cholm through which the Austrians might advance to turn north and attack Warsaw in the rear. The second army under General Russky started from Rovno in the Russian province of Volhynia, advanced along the Kiev-Lemberg railroad straight upon Lemberg. The third army under General Brusiloff came up from the Roumanian border and crossed the frontier at Tarnopol.

General Ivanoff was opposed by an Austrian army under General Dankl before whom he retired to lure him

deep into Russian territory. Generals Russky and Brusiloff joined forces before Lemberg, which was defended by the Austrians under General Auffenberg. The Austrians were disastrously defeated and went fleeing over the Carpathian passes into Hungary. They lost beside the killed and wounded 250,000 prisoners, hundreds and hundreds of guns, and great quantities of supplies. The Russians triumphantly took possession of the important city of Lemberg.

The defeat of the Austrians at Lemberg left the army of General Dankl that had pursued the Russians under General Russky across the Russian frontier in a perilous position. The Russians attacked and sent the Austrians reeling back into Galicia. It did not stop until it came near to Cracow close to the Silesian border of Germany. The Russians surged into the Carpathian passes, sending some Cossacks to raid the Hungarian plains. General Russky left troops to besiege Przemysl which fell early in the spring of the next year, and pushed on westward across the San river to the city of Cracow which the Russians bombarded at the beginning of December. The Russians were now in control of Galicia, the Austrian armies beaten and disorganized. Germany was compelled to come to the aid of her ally. Her first step was in starting an advance upon Warsaw in Russian Poland.

The Capture of Lodz and the Struggle for Warsaw

Von Hindenburg now went south from East Prussia to bolster up the broken Austrian armies. His first aim

was to attack Warsaw and thus draw Russian troops out of Galicia. This would give the Austrians an opportunity to advance upon a much weakened foe. German troops had been placed south as far as Cracow. On October first, two German armies, one of which was largely composed of Austrians and which together did not number more than six Army Corps, advanced from the southwest towards Warsaw. The more northern army on October 14th, had reached the outskirts of the city, seven miles away; the other army advanced to the west bank of the Vistula river before Ivangorod, the strong fortress southeast of Warsaw. The Germans began dropping shells into the city; airplanes flew over, and bombed it; the population began to leave. It looked certain to all the world that Warsaw would fall into the hands of the Germans. Von Hindenburg, however, stood before the city a week without making any great effort to take it. In the meantime his Austrian allies who were before Ivangorod had suffered a reverse. So, on October 21st, he began to retreat from the city. Von Hindenburg, however, had justified his plan of relieving the Austrians in Galicia. The pressure on Przemysl had been relieved; the Russians had retired behind the river San; and it looked as if the Austrians might reconquer Galicia. But the hope was only short lived, for as soon as the Germans retired from Warsaw, the Russians again took up the offensive in Galicia, recrossed the river San, encircled Przemysl and once more stood before Cracow. The situation looked even more dangerous for the Austrians than before, and compelled

von Hindenburg to make a second effort to capture the Polish capital. On his first retreat from Warsaw, von Hindenburg had gone southwest leaving the city of Lodz, after it was captured by the Germans in the opening days of the war, to fall into the hands of the Russians. It was around this city that a terrific battle took place between the Russians and the Germans which lasted for six weeks during a second advance towards Warsaw.

From Cracow to Kalisz, directly opposite Lodz, the Austrians advanced upon the city. Between Thorn and the Vistula river in the north, von Hindenburg sent forward General von Mackensen in a southeasterly direction upon Lodz. Another army crossed the Polish frontier from the direction of Posen towards the city. The troops under General von Mackensen got to the rear of the Russians under General Russky and stood between them and Warsaw. The Russians were in a desperate situation and it looked as if they would be destroyed and the city taken. Another Russian army came to the help of Russky and soon the tables were turned by several German corps being trapped. They in turn, however, escaped, but did so largely through the failure of General Rennenkampf to assist General Russky at the right moment. The Germans in the meantime had called reënforcements from the west, which reached the battlefield in the first week of December and heavily turned the scale against the Russians, enabling von Hindenburg on December 6th, after six weeks of bloody fighting, to capture Lodz. With Lodz in their hands, the Germans began a terrific frontal attack upon

Warsaw. The armies were now in an almost straight line running from the Polish boundary south to the Vistula river about midway between Lodz and Warsaw, but after a tremendous effort, von Hindenburg's attacks died down; and the end of the year found a third attempt for the capture of Warsaw at a standstill.

The important result of this campaign had been to check the Austrian capture of Cracow, and the advance into German Silesia. The Russians, however, stood in the Carpathian passes ready to sweep down in great numbers upon the Hungarian Plains; but the campaign in the east at the close of the year ended very much as it did on the western front, with the armies facing each other and unable to make progress.

The Austrian Defeat in Serbia

At the time the Germans were making their desperate attacks upon Warsaw after the capture of Lodz, and when the campaign in Galicia had come to a halt, the Russians turned their attention to little Serbia. Immediately after the war began, the Austrians had invaded the little country but were promptly defeated at Jedar. After that, the Austrians were too busy in fighting the Russians in Galicia to pay much attention to the little Slav nation. Now that their German ally was holding all of Russia's great strength in the struggle for Warsaw, the Austrians dispatched an army to invade Serbia. The advance began on December first.

The Austrian troops crossed the Danube in three

columns, the right wing coming from Bosnia in the west and meeting the center, captured Belgrade after a severe bombardment. The left moving on to Uchitza on the Serbian Morava, completed the occupation of all the northeast corner of Serbia between the rivers Save and Drina. The object of the Austrians was to reach Nish, the temporary Serbian capital, and thus command the Orient Railway to Bulgaria, which, it was supposed, would very much influence that country to enter the war on the side of the Teutons. News, however, of the Russian Cossacks sweeping down into the Hungarian Plains, caused the Austrians to withdraw some troops to help meet this situation. No sooner had the Austrians weakened their forces than the Serbians took the offensive and attacked a place called Valiero, and disastrously defeated the Austrians. One of the worst routs of the war followed. In headlong disorder, the Austrians retreated from Serbian soil, suffering tremendous losses. By the middle of December, Serbia was free of the enemy and once again the Serbs were back in their capital at Belgrade. It was the second great victory they had won from the Austrians within four months after the beginning of the war. They were not to know the taste of battle again for nearly a year, when Austrians, Germans, and Bulgarians combined, invaded and overran the country.

The Conflict Reaches Asia

We have followed the battles in the more important areas of the war. The nations in Europe had leaped at

each other's throats the moment the war began, and both on the western and eastern fronts the intensest struggles took place during the four months before the cold weather set in to stop the fighting. But the war reached out all this while into Asia and Africa, and though not conducted on the same large scale as in Europe, was still important. The entry of Turkey into the war, through the bombardment of Russian Black Sea ports by the German warships, *Goben* and *Breslau,* which had taken refuge in the Dardanelles from the pursuit of British and French warships in the Mediterranean, started the hostilities in Asia. The Turks had proclaimed a Holy War in which all the believers in the Mohammedan religion were to rise up against the Europeans. The success of the Holy War by the Mohammedans would have been chiefly to the advantage of Germany, as it was through her influence upon Turkey that the Holy War was proclaimed. Its advantage to Germany would have been in the Mohammedans killing and driving out the English from their colonial possessions in the east. It was the first instance in a very, very long while in which a Holy War had been proclaimed; and while there was much uneasiness felt among the English, it really came to nothing. England, however, now that Turkey was in the war and thus opening a path for the German armies into Asia, had to protect her dominions. It was necessary for her to keep the Suez Canal from destruction, and also to throw a barrier across Mesopotamia to prevent an invasion of her Indian empire. Russia also was confronted with a similar prob-

lem in protecting her interests in the east. So in Asia the English had to fight a campaign in Mesopotamia, and the Russians in the Caucasus and Persia.

The Russians sent a body of troops across the northwest of Persia early in November and occupied the town of Bayazid close to Mt. Ararat. Another detachment entered Kurdestan to advance upon Van, while still another Russian detachment occupied the town of Karakilisa, where they were held by the Turks. The great struggle, however, between Russia and Turkey was to take place in Transcaucasia where the boundaries of the Russian and Turkish empires meet. On the Russian side was the great fortress of Kars which the Turks desired to capture; and on the Turkish side was the great stronghold of Erezem, in Armenia, which the Russians desired to capture. The Russian army under the command of General Wormzor did battle with the Turkish army under General Enver Pasha at Khorasan, and utterly defeated it on New Year's Day, 1915. This victory left the Russians unmolested in the Caucasus to prepare for their advance into Armenia, which was later done under the command of Grand Duke Nicholas.

In the meantime, the British had started an advance from the Persian Gulf up the Tigris river. They advanced without much opposition to the town of Kurna at the junction of the Tigris and Euphrates rivers, which they attacked and captured on the ninth of December. About three hundred miles up the Tigris from Kurna, was Bagdad, the city of magic, which the British hoped to

reach; but the fulfillment of that hope was still far ahead of them. We must now leave the British on the Tigris and turn our attention for the moment to the futile effort of the Turks to reach the Suez Canal.

A force of some 65,000 men under the command of General Djemal Pasha was sent by the Turks to cut the Suez Canal. It was a very difficult task, for the Turkish army to approach the Canal, because they had to cross a desert to do so, with no water supply and no railways to transport munitions or food. Nor could motor transports cross this desert to replace the lack of railway transportation. A force of British troops, under the command of Major General Sir John Maxwell, was ordered to protect the canal. In October a small force of Bedouins, a roving Arab tribe, was reported near the Canal. These the British ran down and drove away towards the end of November. Of all the Turkish troops, 65,000 strong, which started out to reach the Canal, only 12,000 men finally arrived in its vicinity, and not until the beginning of February in 1915. Nearly the whole force was killed and captured so that the only Turks who were near the Canal were those who had escaped and were roaming about as fugitives. The battle for the Suez Canal thus ended. Egypt was saved from invasion, and the connecting link of England's water route to the east was safe and secure.

We have only to go further east across Asia to the Pacific to mention another campaign in the closing weeks of the year, which was like a burning fragment tossed out of Europe's conflagration. And if we turn south from

the Suez Canal to the lower part of Africa, we shall find still another burning fragment that fell from the burning house of Europe.

Let us first see what the Japanese were doing on the Pacific. No sooner had Germany refused by her silence to turn over her colony of Chiou-chau in China to the Japanese, than Japan declared war and proceeded to take this place. She landed an expedition of Japanese troops which were later joined by some 1500 British troops near Chiou-chau and commenced to advance early in September upon Tsing-tau, a strong German city and railroad center at the end of the peninsula. A fleet of British and Japanese ships stood out at sea and bombarded Tsing-tau to cover the Japanese advance. The Germans had the city encircled by miles of barbed wire entanglements and heavily fortified with big guns; but the Japanese in their usual systematic manner proceeded to creep upon the city. Their advance was very slow as they had many difficult obstacles to overcome; but finally, after nearly six weeks of fighting, Tsing-tau surrendered with a garrison of four thousand German troops.

The Japanese warships had seized the German islands in the South Pacific, and as the New Zealanders had taken Samoa and the Australians Kaiser Wilhelm's Land, the Germans lost all of their colonies in the east.

Now in South Africa a campaign had been begun to capture the German colonies. Before the South Africans could attempt to do this, however, they had to suppress a rebellion under the leadership of General De Wet, one of

the leaders in the Boer War of 1899. He had never become reconciled to the rule of England and at the outbreak of the war he thought he saw an opportunity to begin a successful revolt;—but General Louis Botha, another one of the famous Boer leaders of 1899, was faithful to the English government and soon had suppressed De Wet's rebellion, making its leader a prisoner.

While this revolution was going on, the Germans in southwest Africa invaded British South Africa; but the Boers rallied around Botha as their leader and began the invasion of German Southwest Africa. The conquest of German Southwest Africa was, however, owing to the wild nature of the country in which it was easy for troops to evade each other, a difficult and prolonged task. It took Botha well into the middle of the following year before the last German commander surrendered, but July, 1915, saw the whole of German Southwest Africa in possession of the South African Republics.

Another German colony in Africa, Togoland, was more speedily conquered by Anglo-French forces by the end of August, 1914. The Cameroons, another German possession in Africa, was conquered by the British and French together early in 1915. Only German East Africa now was left; and this was the most difficult of all the German possessions to overcome. The struggle here went on until the last year of the war, but it, too, finally succumbed; and Germany was entirely driven out of Africa, as she had been driven out of the Far East.

These minor areas of the conflict, so far away from

where the war started, saw the ambitious structure of the German empire collapse and vanish. Indeed the end of 1914 saw failure attending all the mighty and confident blows of Germany's military machine. Beaten at the Marne, and in Flanders, held in the East by the Russian mass, her ally's armies crushed and disorganized by repeated defeats in Galicia and Serbia, she was in a decidedly bad position. The Germans thought the war would be won by them in three or four months, for did not the Kaiser promise the troops when they were driving into Belgium, that they would be home in Berlin by Christmas, celebrating their victories? Instead the end of 1914 showed the Germans, at least, that for them the war had just begun; and we will see in the campaign for the next year how true this was.

CHAPTER II

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1915

On the Western Front

Battles of Neuve-Chapelle, Ypres, Loos, Champagne

THE year 1915 opened with the armies on the western front deadlocked in trench warfare. Fighting in the open was now a thing of the past as far as the armies in France and Flanders were concerned. A new situation demanded new methods of attack as well as new weapons to make them. Two factors became necessary to carry on a successful action. These were the development of high explosive shells in battering down trench works and an increased use of machine guns to repulse infantry attacks. Thus artillery became steadily more important. And to feed the guns with an enormous supply of ammunition was imperative. The Germans had already taken these things into account. The French, too, were not slow to meet the new demands which the fighting called for. The British, however, had to learn the need by bitter experience. They still clung to the use of shrapnel shells almost to the point of folly; and it was only after a great controversy at home, that the British War Office was compelled to supply the high explosives which their generals at the front demanded. So the nations be-

Painting by Cyrus Cuneo
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THE "MOPPERS UP" LEFT NOTHING ALIVE BEHIND THEM

gan in feverish haste to manufacture high explosive shells in great quantities and to multiply the great number of guns they were to feed.

The year opened with a small French attack in Champagne, north of Soissons, and again in February, the French attacked on a narrow front east of Argonne and in sight of the Cathedral of Rheims on the west. These attacks, however, were but faint outbursts. It was not until the first part of March that an advance of any importance took place. In this advance, the British fought the Battle of Neuve-Chapelle between Lille and La Bassée. The object of this attack was to capture Aubers Ridge, a commanding position for future advance. The Battle of Neuve-Chapelle saw the first use of massed artillery bombardment, which the Germans called "Drum-Fire." The method was to mass artillery on a narrow front and pour great quantities of shells into the enemy's lines, destroy the enemy's trenches, and open a way for the infantry to advance. The British attempt, however, merely showed what might be accomplished. They did not have the ammunition to follow up an initial success, and so did not reach the second line of German trenches, being repulsed by terrific machine gun fire. In this engagement, they had opened the way to Lille, but could not go through. They gained a mile of territory and 2,000 German prisoners but suffered a loss of 13,000 casualties. The battle was the first unheeded warning of the difficulty of frontal attacks in trench warfare, a warning that was

repeated in nearly all the battles they fought on the western front during the year.

Early in April the French advancing north from Toul and south from Verdun attempted to clear the Germans out of the St. Mihiel salient which penetrated into their lines threateningly in the bend at the frontier in the east. They failed to move the Germans, and all during the war the St. Mihiel salient remained like a thorn in the French lines until the Americans in a brilliant attack wiped it out in September, 1918.

On April 22d the Germans began the second Battle of Ypres. This lasted for five days of terrible fighting. The second Battle of Ypres will always be memorable for the first use of poison gas. The German attack was a new effort to open the road to Calais; and they believed that with their poison gas they would succeed. The point of attack was where the French and British lines formed, and was held by Canadian troops and a contingent of French colonials. The troops saw coming down upon them a mass of vapor. It was a most unusual sight, but not for an instant did they think of it as a devilish poison which would burn and choke them to death. Totally unprepared to meet the death-dealing fumes, they were overcome. A number of the Canadian troops had the hardihood to attack right through the vapor. It was the swiftness of the men that saved them, as they came out on the other side of the gas clouds upon astonished and unprepared Germans. But the gas had done its deadly work. The French colonials on the right of the Canadians broke and fled. The

Canadians fought bravely as they choked and gasped but in such a condition they were unable to stop the oncoming enemy. A lieutenant with burning lungs and choking throat, heroically groped his way back and made his superior officer understand what had taken place. He dropped and died in great agony when this was done. Reenforcements were rushed up to the agonized troops, and the gap opened by the deadly poison gas was filled, and the enemy stopped; but the Canadians had to retreat, because when the French colonials broke under the gas attack, it left them exposed.

The Germans gained much ground, many prisoners, and much material; but the second Battle of Ypres ended with the city still in the hands of the British and the pathway to Calais still blocked.

During the next two months, there was much fighting of a minor character along the line between the Somme and Ypres, the most important being General Foch's attempt to reach Vimy Ridge. These engagements were known as the Battle of Artois. The importance was only local, however, and it was not until September that the British and French undertook offensives on any considerable scale.

The autumn offensive of the British and French was an attack from two widely separated points, at the north and in the east, with the intention of penetrating the German lines and forcing a retirement in the huge salient. The British attacked between La Bassée and Loos with the object of capturing Lens. Coöperating with the Brit-

ish at this point were the French under General Foch. The French under General Pétain were to attack in the Champagne with Vouziers, a railroad center behind the German lines, as an objective. Both attacks opened on September 25th with the greatest artillery bombardment of the war up to this time. The success of the French in the Champagne was the greatest yet known since trench warfare came into existence. The French broke into second line entrenchments. A Moroccan detachment broke through the entire German position, but, without support, was cut to pieces. The Germans became thoroughly alarmed at the progress of the French and began to draw reserves from various parts of the western front. After fighting many days, the attack began to slow down as the French losses became very great. The result was that the French had advanced for a mile and a half or two miles on a front of fifteen miles. The losses, however, on both sides were very great, though the French had taken 25,000 prisoners and 150 guns with large quantities of ammunition. It was a big victory and the French were very much elated, though its effect upon the whole situation on the western front was small.

Turning to the north where the British were to act in harmony with the French advance in Champagne, we meet with entirely different results. General Foch, as you know, was on the right of the British, under Sir John French, who was to move forward at Loos. His duty was to keep a pressure on the Germans in front of him in Artois so as to prevent the withdrawal of troops to reën-

force other parts of their line. The British, as at Neuve-Chapelle, broke the German line at Loos, but were unprepared to take advantage of it. The troops under General Foch attacked on September 25th, and advanced to the top of Vimy Ridge to which the Germans still clung.

Now turning to the British who attacked on the same day as Pétain's army in Champagne and Foch's army in Artois, we find them meeting with early successes. They captured the Hohenzollern Redoubt, an intricate and difficult maze of concrete trenches and wire entanglements. Further to the south, the Scottish Highlanders entering Loos continued on, captured the slopes of Hill 70, standing ready to descend and advance upon Lens. But at this point, the fruits of the British success vanished. The Germans retook all that the British had gained, because the latter had not been prepared to follow up their successes. The British commander, Sir John French, had to appeal to General Foch for help as he had done before during the battle in Flanders. In the Battle of Loos, the British took 3,000 prisoners and 25 guns; but they had lost more than 60,000 men. The Battle of Loos was the worst experience that the British army had known since the war had begun. It lost for Sir John French his command of the British forces. The British were not to retrieve their military prestige until the Battle of the Somme which began nearly a year later.

On the Eastern Front

We will now turn to the eastern front where Germany

made a great effort to gain a decision. By the end of 1915, the Russian armies, in spite of the three drives for Warsaw, remained in control of Galicia, and the Austrian armies were powerless to move them. With the new year, the Russians began in earnest to get over the Carpathian Mountains. In March and April they made a gigantic effort to clear the two most westerly passes, the Dukla and the Lupkow. While on these snow-covered trails, and suffering keenly from the cold, the Russians fought with great endurance. It was necessary for them to make haste if they were going to descend and invade the Hungarian plains, because the Germans and Austrians were beginning to come through on the more southern passes to the Galician foothills, where they attacked the Russians in the rear. The Battle of the Carpathians was most costly to the Russians, who, in spite of their great resources in men, could not keep up their reënforcements, nor spare the guns and ammunition which were necessary to bring success. The mountains themselves more than the Austrian armies held the Russians back. They were a wall against which the Russians battered their heads.

In the meantime, Przemysl, which had stood siege since the previous autumn, surrendered to the Russians on March 22d. This success, however, scarcely made up for the disaster that overtook the Russians in the Battle of the Masurian Lakes. The Austro-Germans in January had crossed into Bukowina and drove the Russians out. The purpose of this invasion was largely to keep Roumania neutral. Russia sought to offset this Austro-German suc-

cess by another invasion of East Prussia. The Russians coming from the north and south sought to drive the Germans out from their strong position west of the Masurian Lakes. Von Hindenburg, however, who knew this region like a book, tricked the Russians to their ruin. He lured them on and then drove them into the marshy and woody districts of the lake regions, and attacked them with terrific force, cutting the Russians to pieces. Thousands of Russians were captured in this battle and those who escaped retreated across the frontier, hard pressed by the Germans, to the protection of their fortresses at Kovno, Grodno, and Ossowiec. East Prussia was now clear of Russians for good. After this victory, von Hindenburg made an unsuccessful attempt from the north to advance upon Warsaw; but the Polish capital was yet beyond his reach.

We must now follow the course of the greatest battle of the war since the Battle of the Marne. It began on May Day, 1915, and entirely changed the whole course of events on the eastern front. Only four battles of the entire war surpassed it in magnitude. They were the Battle of Verdun, the Battle of the Somme, the Battle of the last German Offensive, and Foch's Battle of "two blows and a kick" which began on July 18th and ended with the signing of the Armistice, November 11, 1918.

The battle which began on the first of May, 1915, was to do more than change the whole course of military events in the East. Out of this disaster was born the Russian Revolution nearly two years later, which overthrew the

Imperial House of Romanoff. In fact, though no one could read it at the time, it spelled the doom of Russia as a great empire. The Battle of the Dunajec saw the rising of the star of one of the few great German generals the war produced. General von Mackensen, whom von Hindenburg had given an important task in the first drive upon Warsaw, was put in command of the German army that began its drive through Galicia. Fully 2,000 guns opened fire into the Russian lines to prepare for the advance of Mackensen's phalanx. This battering ram fairly destroyed the Russian army of General Dimitrieff, which stood opposite. On either side of Dimitrieff's army stood the army of General Evarts on the north of the Vistula river and behind the Nida river. To the south was General Brusiloff's army which had victoriously held the Dukla and Lupkow Passes in the Carpathian Mountains. Both these northern and southern armies during the early stages of von Mackensen's advance were immovable, but the destruction of Dimitrieff's army in the center made it impossible for them to hold their positions. The German advance was fast getting into Brusiloff's rear and cutting off his line of retreat. It seemed as if he would be trapped in the Carpathian Mountains and destroyed. Indeed, the Germans all but enveloped the Russians to the south. Only the Russian reserves coming out from Przemysl, who halted the Germans for a few hours, gave Brusiloff an opportunity to escape. He crossed the river San and once more repaired the Russian front, on a line with Evarts' northern army which had retired from the Nida

river; and thus the Russian front was once more restored. All the way from the Vistula river along the San through Jaroslov and Przemysl and eastward along the Dniester river to the Carpathians, the Russians once more presented a solid front. The Russians attacked and fought the Battle of the San in an effort to beat back the Germans, but it was of no avail. Von Mackensen crossed the San at Jaroslov, while an Austro-German army came down out of the Carpathians in the rear of Przemysl. The Russians finding themselves about to be encircled on the north and south once more retreated, evacuating Przemysl and stood on a line at Grodek, before Lemberg, and from here north and northwest to the lower San. The swamps and marshes around Grodek made it impossible for von Mackensen to move his artillery up to attack Lemberg, so he turned north from Jaroslov to Rawa Russka, defeated the Russians there and then turned south towards the rear of Lemberg. The Russians gave up the city and retired behind the Sereth, and Galicia was freed of all the Russian troops.

In a little over a month Russia had lost what it took her many months to gain. Thousands and thousands of her soldiers had been killed, and wounded, and taken prisoners. Vast quantities of stores had been captured. But more than this, Austria had been saved, and Russian territory was now in danger of invasion. No one can deny but that General von Mackensen had fought a magnificent campaign, one that was planned on a tremendous scale and carried out to the least detail with precision. By what

he achieved, it was made possible for von Hindenburg to begin his fourth drive to capture Warsaw and command all of Russian Poland; and now we must move north and see von Hindenburg realize success at last.

The Capture of Warsaw

Von Hindenburg was now to achieve a triumph more important than von Mackensen's re-capture of Galicia. As a mere feat of arms the taking of Warsaw, even if we combine all the four attempts, was not equal to the splendor and deadliness of von Mackensen's campaign. But the latter victory only restored their possessions to the Austrians. It is quite true that the effects were deeper than this. With the first blast of the guns at the Dunajec on May first an empire cracked and the imperial crown of the Romanoffs was shaken. But the sound of the crack was too faint for men inside or outside of Russia to hear; and the Czar wore his crown in such a fashion as to hide its imperial slant. Deep in the roar of guns the forces were gathering to product that lightning stroke of revolution by which the empire was to be riven and the crown hurled into the ruins.

With the loss of Warsaw Russia was to lose a province that was once a kingdom. For over a century Poland, broken and trampled, bled with the anguish of her fate. Torn limb from limb the bleeding parts barely existed under Russian, Prussian and Austrian rule. Grafted upon these states the separate parts of Poland could do nothing but wail over their unhappy lot. The iron heel of war was

now turning this wail into agonized cries which reached and touched the hearts of mankind over all the world.

The advantage of all the victories that had so far come to the Teutonic arms on the eastern front had been Austria's. It was of course to Germany's benefit to keep Austria from being crushed and put out of the war; but there had yet been no advantage to Germany that would help her toward a decision by putting Russia out, and thus release her full strength to be thrown against the British and French in the west. And this she wished to do before the full strength of Great Britain, combined with the French, was too great to overcome. So she gathered a force to throw against the gates of Warsaw.

Three immense groups of armies, under the command of von Hindenburg who led the first, driving south through the Niemen-Narew-Bohr line of fortresses; another under Prince Leopold of Bavaria came from the west to cover the front between Warsaw and the fortress of Ivangorod; and a third under von Mackensen came north from behind Lublin just east of the Vistula river. Three Russian armies opposed, then under the commands of Generals Evarts, Ivanoff and Alexiev, with Grand Duke Nicholas in supreme command. Thus the two soldiers who were fighting this important battle against each other were von Hindenburg and Grand Duke Nicholas.

The fighting began on July 15th. Von Mackensen with the Austrian Archduke Joseph in Command of one of his armies, advanced across the frontier upon Lublin in an effort to get behind the fortress of Ivangorod. They met

with difficulties owing to the poor conditions of the roads and lack of railroads. The Archduke forging ahead of von Mackensen lost his support and was met at a place called Krasnik, where he was badly beaten by the Russians under Evarts. Von Mackensen came up to help his general but the Germans were held for a while. It was then towards the end of July and the Russians had hopes of stopping the Germans from the south. Von Hindenburg, however, pushed forward in the north, and in the center, where Prince Leopold's armies were coming from the west, the Vistula was crossed between Warsaw and Ivangorod. The Germans were now in the rear of Warsaw and the city was doomed. On August 4th, the Russians evacuated the city and Prince Leopold triumphantly entered.

But could the Russian armies escape? So far von Hindenburg had beaten the Grand Duke Nicholas. Von Mackensen had taken Lublin on July 30th, and after the fall of Warsaw moved northeast towards Brest Litovsk as von Hindenburg's armies moved east in an effort to encircle the Russians. The next ten days or two weeks was an anxious time for the Russian generals. But the skill of Duke Nicholas outwitted the skill of von Hindenburg and von Mackensen and he was able to save his armies on the first stage of their retreat.

No sooner did the Grand Duke accomplish this with the hope of making a stand, when a new peril faced him. The fortress of Grodno in the north was taken by General Below who advanced beyond Vilna. To the south in Volhynia the fortresses of Dubno and Lutsk were taken

by another German army. Once more on both wings the Germans had struck to the rear of the Russians and they were in danger of being surrounded and captured. The Grand Duke had by magnificent work pulled his armies out of one trap only to find them in another. Should this new trap succeed Russia would be crushed. The territory lost, in a sense meant nothing; but should these armies of nearly two millions of men be destroyed and captured, Russia's military power would be absolutely ruined, and she would have to sue for peace. So the Emperor Nicholas deposed the Grand Duke, and took personal command of the armies himself.

At Vilna in the north the Russians had been surrounded but fought their way out of the enemy's grip. Brusiloff in the south was stubbornly making an offensive which took the fortresses of Lutsk and Dubno away from the Germans for a short while. Meantime the Russian armies in the center were retiring and reached a position in front of the Pripet marshes, a vast swampy track which afforded them protection. Once more the Russians were saved. The Germans had failed to take Riga on the gulf of that name in the extreme north. From Riga behind the Dvina river to Dvinsk south through Pinsk in front of the Pripet marshes and on to the fortress of Rovno behind the Sereth river near the Galician border, the Russian armies, shattered and worn after more than six weeks of disastrous fighting, were intact. Winter now about to set in made further military operations impossible.

The Germans had taken Warsaw and penetrated hun-

dreds of miles into Russian territory. They had killed the Russians by thousands and captured still more thousands. Great quantities of supplies and ammunition had fallen into their hands. They had demoralized the Russians' military organization. But they had not won a decision in the field. The two great campaigns on the eastern front, von Mackensen's drive through Galicia beginning May 1st, and von Hindenburg's through Poland and Russia beginning July 5th, had put Russia in a helpless condition for the time being. She could bring no aid to the Allies by engaging the Austrians and Germans in the east, for some time to come. In face of her defeats, the Russian government declared its purpose to stay in the war until the end. The Germans not being able to crush her hopelessly on the battlefield, tried another method which was much more successful. And the fruits of it came in the form of the Revolution nearly two years later.

Gallipoli the Tragic

The world awoke one morning towards the end of February, 1915, to hear the echoes of the great guns on the French and British battleships roaring at the mouth of the Dardanelles. It knew those echoes meant a great adventure, but how tragic that adventure would be no one could foresee. Only the world was thrilled because it believed that those thunderous guns, belching death and destruction upon the Turkish forts, were a prophecy of the fall of Constantinople. The Turks captured the city in the thirteenth century under Mohammed II and have

Painting by Edgar F. Wittmack
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THE THUNDER OF THE BRITISH GUNS AWOKE THE ECHOES OF THE DARDANELLES

held it ever since. Here the oldest existing Christian church, St. Sophia, was located; the Crusaders had occupied the city for a number of years, and many Christian nations desired to have it under Christian rule. The history of the Turks since they made Constantinople the capital of their empire was one long series of cruel tyrannies over all the Christian peoples whom they ruled in Europe and Asia. You can imagine then, how the roar of the Allied battleships raining death and destruction upon the Turkish forts thrilled the world with a great hope—the hope of at last driving the Turk out of Constantinople and Europe.

The English Admiral promised to be in Constantinople by Easter, but a month after the bombardment began, that is by March 18th, and though the ships had gone some distance up the Straits towards The Narrows which lead into the Sea of Marmora, the attack was a failure. How this failure came about you shall learn when we follow the course of the navies in the war as we are now following the course of the armies. This naval attempt, however, was the prelude to the campaign on Gallipoli which was chiefly conducted by British troops. It was after the navy had failed single-handed that the army was sent to help. Soon the navy dropped out altogether for reasons that you will learn in due course, and left the army to attempt what proved to be an impossible task. A British statesman, Winston Churchill, had his imagination aroused by the possibility of taking Gallipoli as the approach to Constantinople, and much against their better judgment,

forced the consent of his associates in the British government, to put it through.

The Peninsula of Gallipoli is a narrow tongue of hilly land about fifty-three miles long running from the Gulf of Xeros at the European end to Cape Helles between the Ægean Sea and the Straits of Dardanelles, which is the ancient Hellespont of Hero and Leander. Its narrowest part is a little to the south of Bulair not far from the European end, and is only about three miles across. On the eastern side where the Straits open into the Sea of Marmora is the town of Gallipoli. Both shores, on the sea side and on the Straits decline sharply with sandy cliffs rising from one to three hundred feet above the sea. Ravines break through these cliffs at irregular distances through which the seasonal rains pour into the sea. The hilly inland is covered with brushwood.

The end of the Gallipoli Peninsula from The Narrows at the northeast to Cape Helles at the southwest is like an old boot. From Cape Suvla to Cape Helles along the Ægean Sea is a distance of twenty miles; the base of the boot from Sedd-el-Bahr to Kilid Bahr is a distance of about ten miles. From Gaba Tepe, across the ankle of the boot, to the little town of Maidos at The Narrows is less than five miles. From here to the top of the boot the width steadily diminishes to a mile and a half. Above Maidos in a diagonal line to Suvla Bay on the Ægean Sea is a distance of five or six miles. Suvla Bay was brought into the area of conflict as a climax of blunder to the tragedy of the campaign against Gallipoli. The scene of

the long weary months of fighting was along those ten or eleven miles from Gaba Tepe to the beaches of Cape Helles.

A description of the territory just mentioned will give you some idea of the difficulties that confronted the British troops. And in following the Gallipoli fighting you must keep it in mind, and in doing so you will not wonder at the failure of these troops to defeat the Turks, but you will be thrilled with admiration at the bravery they displayed.

On the narrow strip of land from Cape Suvla to Cape Helles are three dominating hills. The first is Sari Bair, seven miles from Cape Suvla, which dominates and is nearly a thousand feet high; the second Kilid Bahr, seven miles south of Sari Bair, is a long plateau from five to seven hundred feet high running inland from the Straits to within two miles of the sea on the other side commanding The Narrows; the third is the barren Achi Baba, five miles southwest of Kilid Bahr and six miles from Cape Helles, which is nearly six hundred feet high, and commands the beaches at Cape Helles. Around and between these hills was a bumpy, sandy land broken with gullies, without roads and through which no water ran, exposed to the burning sun and the hills planted with howitzers and honey-combed with machine guns. The seacoast had only two or three places along its entire length where troops could land, and the beaches at these places were literally covered with barbed wire, and the land behind the beaches was mined.

This was the Gallipoli where England sent thousands of her own and her colonial troops to heroic failure and death. They suffered and died among the memories of ancient history. Shadowy forms of Homer's great epic must have risen to look upon the scene with wonder-stricken eyes. What a baby's affair was the long struggle of the Greeks for Troy beside this gigantic whirl and roar of iron and fire. For Gallipoli was ancient and classic ground. In 405 B. C. it was here that the battle of Ægospotamos was fought when the Spartans defeated the Athenians. In 480 B. C. Xerxes and his hordes crossed from Asia to conquer Europe; and across this same land Alexander the Great went from Europe to conquer Asia. At the very mouth of the Straits, where it meets the Ægean Sea, was the scene of Leander's swim to ancient Abydos and Hero, the same swim that a famous English poet, Lord Byron, in a spirit of emulation took a hundred years ago.

The bombardment of the outer forts by the British and French warships began on February 25th and ended on March 2d. On April 25th the campaign began in earnest with the landing of a British force at Sedd-el-Bahr and of the Australians before Gaba Tepe. Some French troops under General D'Amade landed on the Asiatic side to draw the attention of the Turks from the British attack. There were some 12,000 Anzacs, which means Australian, New Zealand Army Corps, under the command of General Sir Ian Hamilton.

The landing on Gallipoli was foredoomed to failure

because the British had waited too long to surprise the Turks. After the battleships had withdrawn from attacking the forts the Turks began to prepare their defenses in anticipation of a land attack. It was nearly six weeks between the naval attack and the landing of troops on the peninsula, and in this time the Turks worked hard to complete an impregnable series of defensive works. These works extended right down to the shore and in the water. Not only had the troops to contend with these defenses but were under a constant and heavy gun-fire all the while they were going ashore.

Many devices were used to get the troops ashore. One of the most hazardous and romantic was a feat that imitated that of the Greeks when they took Troy. The Greeks made a large wooden horse, hollow inside, which was filled with warriors. The curiosity of the Trojans led them to pull this great horse within the gates of the city from where the Greeks had left it to tempt them to do this very thing. Once within the city the Greeks came pouring out of the horse's stomach, attacked and overcame the surprised Trojans, and opened the gates for their comrades to enter and subdue the city. Well, in emulation of this trick, the British loaded a great transport, the S. S. *River Clyde,* with troops and ran her ashore on the beach at Sedd-el-Bahr.

Once the troops got ashore they fought with their backs against the water merely to hold on to the land. It was fully thirty hours after the British landed on the beaches at Sedd-el-Bahr before they could even begin an advance.

Their object was to take the heights of Achi Baba, as it was the object of the Australians from Anzac Beach before Gaba Tepe, to advance and take the heights of Sari Bahr. But after months of heart-breaking efforts, performed with the greatest heroism, the troops made little or no headway. The British losses were terrible. The killed amounted to 25,000, the wounded to 75,000, while the climate was so bad that nearly 100,000 men were forced into the hospital from sickness and disease.

After such a disastrous failure against which all England protested, and Australia and New Zealand mourned because of the horror they knew their sons to be suffering, you would suppose that the Birtish would give up the venture. But this she was not willing to do without one more effort to overcome the Turks. So during the first week in August, another force was landed at Suvla Bay, four miles above Anzac Cove.

This force was to advance eastward to the Anafarta range behind the heights of Sari Bahr and cut the Turks' line of communications. At the same time the British were to attack before Achi Baba, and the Australians before Sari Bahr. The Turks were celebrating the Ramadan, an observance by the Mohammedans of the time when the first revelation came to Mohammed, and so were taken by surprise. Unlike the landings at Gaba Tepe and Sedd-el-Bahr, the landing at Suvla Bay was attended by no difficulties. But after the landing, delays undid all that was accomplished. The officers hesitated, and all was lost.

A half-hearted attempt to advance was finally made but it was too late, and the whole effort came to nothing.

At last the British government gave up the attempt to take Gallipoli. On December 19th, after nearly five months at Suvla Bay, the troops were safely withdrawn. On the next day the Anzacs had abandoned Anzac Cove, and by January 9th, the last man on Gallipoli embarked at Cape Helles and the tragic campaign was over. What had taken place in the Gallipoli campaign was the five battles of The Landings which hereafter in the history of the British empire will remain among the most gallant and tragic in its military annals. On the surface the venture was an absolute loss, but the campaign had a value in keeping Turkish troops from being sent to Mesopotamia to strengthen the Turkish resistance against the British advance and in the Caucasus against the Russians. Beside the Turkish loss in killed and wounded was as great if not greater than that of the British.

Though only an episode in the mighty conflict of the World War, the fate of the heroic dead who fell upon Gallipoli the Tragic will reëcho in song and story in the times to come like the glorious deeds of Homer's warriors among whose ghosts they fell.

On the Italian Front

About a month after the British had landed on Gallipoli the Italians had entered the war and began operations against the Austrians. The campaign on the Italian front, however, was of slight importance during

the year 1915. Austria commanded all the strong positions on the frontier in the north and Italy's purpose was merely to block the way there and keep the Austrians from sweeping down into the plains of Lombardy and Venetia, while the greatest effort was made to advance towards the east, across the Isonzo river into Austria-Hungary.

The Italian troops immediately advanced north into the Trentino and covered the Austrian positions. The bulk of the army, however, moved east, crossed the Isonzo river to Monfalcone a few miles to the northwest of Trieste, and further north stood on the western bank of the Isonzo before Gradisca and Gorizia, all of which were on Austrian territory. Beginning on June 7th for a week the Italians attacked on their right wing across the Isonzo from Caporetto to the sea. Monfalcone was captured and a position within nine miles of Trieste reached. The Italians found the Isonzo too strong to cross before Gradisca and the blow there was stopped by the Austrians. On June 15th the Italians captured the strong position on Monte Nero to the east of Caporetto. General Cadorna's armies were in favorable positions but were finding it very difficult to force the Austrians back. On July 2d an attack on a wide front was ordered for the purpose of encircling and capturing Gorizia, the obstacle that stood in the path of the Italian advance. The conflict raged with continued fury with small advances by the Italians, but Gorizia held out. It was over a year later before the city was taken. Before the end of the year the Italians had, on the southern wing, reached the Carso Plateau, occupied

San Michele, a strong height dominating the Doberdo Plateau, and in the north, on the left wing, stood before Tolmino. The armies were now deadlocked, with the Italians far to the east, and on their extreme left flank in the Carnic Alps holding the passes, as further westward in the Trentino they guarded the passage into Venetia and Lombardy. It is well to keep in mind the disposition of the Italian armies because it was full of danger as we shall come to see when the Austrians made their offensive between Lago di Garda and the Brenta in 1916, which failed, and the Austro-Germans through Caporetto in 1917, which succeeded.

The Conquest of Serbia

As the German campaign in Poland was drawing to a close and the Italian campaign became deadlocked, another campaign was being prepared for by the Germans which was to carry the war on a big scale into the Balkans. You know of the two unsuccessful attempts made by Austria to conquer Serbia. On each of these occasions the gallant little nation repelled the invader and sent him in headlong flight back over the frontier. But now that Russia had been driven out of Galicia, had been deprived of her Polish province, and her own territory deeply invaded by the enemy, she was helpless to prevent the Germans from moving troops to attack on another front. The eastern situation was entirely, for the time being, at any rate, under the control of the Germans. There remained only one more field to be conquered before the mighty military

machine of Germany would triumphantly master the whole of eastern Europe from the German border to Constantinople. This was the Balkan field. Serbia was a bitter and active enemy; Bulgaria, up to October, 1915, was neutral but an ally; Greece was neutral, though the government was sympathetic and inactive because helpless; Roumania was neutral but opposed to the German cause. The immediate task for Germany was to put Serbia out of the way, to crush her so she could no longer interfere with Austria's aggression in the Balkans.

The time was now ripe for Germany to undertake the conquest of Serbia. The British, as you have just learned, failed utterly in their attempt to take Gallipoli and advance upon Constantinople. True, a British army was marching up the Tigris, but it was still too far away from Bagdad to cause any worry. And the Russians in the Caucasus had shown no disposition as yet to make a serious attempt to advance through Armenia. Turkey, then, was in no immediate danger and could hold out until the Germans had forged a passage through the Balkans so that arms and munitions could be freely transported to the needy Ottoman.

Just as the roar of the big guns began to die down in France and Poland, the dense smoke of battle cleared away from the frosty air of autumn, and the vast armies settled in the trenches to watch and wait through the long winter months, the flame and thunder of a brief but terrific battle broke out along the Serbian border. General von Mackensen who had smashed the Russians at the Dunajec

and helped von Hindenburg to defeat the same enemy in Poland, was in command of a large Austro-German force. The Serbs are among the best soldiers in Europe, but the brave little army of 150,000 men under Marshal Putnik, the Serbian commander, not only faced von Mackensen's hosts but the pitiless conditions of the fast approaching winter. Though their artillery was inferior to the Germans', the Serbians held finely entrenched positions behind the rivers Danube and Save. But the roads behind them were very poor, the food supplies were scarce, and in case of defeat they had no refuge that could be safely reached and no aid they could hopefully look for. Added to these dangers was the fear of Bulgaria coming into the war and attacking them from the west in the rear.

The boom of von Mackensen's guns began in the latter part of September and the shells began to rain upon Belgrade. On October 7th and 11th the Austro-Germans crossed the Danube in two armies east and west of Belgrade, and began moving south behind a deluge of shells. And just as the Serbs feared, on October 11th, Bulgaria sent three armies across the Serbian frontier. This act of Bulgaria was the worst treachery of the war with the single exception of the German treachery in Belgium. Poor little Serbia was now doomed. Blasted in front and stabbed in the back, the heroic little army of Marshal Putnik fought with great bravery. Over the rough and frozen roads they crawled in retreat, suffering beyond words from exposure and hunger.

An heroic stand was made at Babuna Pass which was

reached on November 5th, and where the Serbs expected the Allies, who began landing troops at Salonica on October 5th, to come to their aid. The Serbs made a brave stand at Babuna Pass while the French made a vain effort to reach them. Driven from the Pass the Serbians fell back upon Monastir, which was not prepared for defense. The Bulgarians were to get in behind the Serbian army, cut off its ertreat and lines of communications while the Germans came upon it from the north. Caught between the anvil and the hammer Marshal Putnik's troops would be destroyed and the little nation would not have a fighting man left.

Von Mackensen came south with his armies in a leisurely fashion to give the Bulgars time to carry out their part of the plan. When the Serbs reached Monastir the trap was set, because they could not hold the city, the Bulgars soon taking it. Now von Mackensen came on like a bolt, and the poor Serbs scattered in rapid retreat to the west over the Montenegrin and Albanian mountains to the Adriatic seacoast. In their wild and disorderly flight over the snow-covered mountains the Serbs lost thousands of men from cold and hunger. It was a terrible experience they suffered, far worse than the Belgians before them or the Roumanians afterwards, among the small nations that were conquered by the Germans. There was only the fragment of an army left and this had to be taken overseas to find a safe place to rest and reorganize.

The defeat of Serbia brought the fighting in Europe to an end for 1915. The year was far more successful for

Germany than the year 1914 had been. She had held her own against France and England on the western front. The Russians had been driven out of Galicia and Austrian military strength revived to cope with the fresh new enemy on the Italian front. Poland was in German hands, the vast Russian armies badly beaten and reduced, and hundreds of miles of Russian territory invaded. The Turks had received but one severe trial, on Gallipoli, and were victorious, and the open road across the Balkans by which they could receive the much needed guns and shells from Germany was a strong link in the Teutonic alliance. Altogether the German hopes ran high and the campaign of 1916 was prepared with great confidence.

Only one more incident at the end of 1915 needs to be mentioned. The British army under General Townshend marching up the Tigris had advanced beyond Kut-el-Amara in Mesopotamia, where it was met and defeated by the Turks and driven back into the city. The Turks besieged Kut-el-Amara, which was far away from the British base down the Tigris, and one more far-flung adventure of British arms was facing disaster. So as Germany faced the campaign of the new year with confidence, Great Britain faced it with concern.

CHAPTER III

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1916

THE CONFLICT IN ASIA

British Surrender at Kut-el-Amara, and the Russian Advance in Armenia and Persia

TWO interesting and more or less important events in Turkish Asia invite our attention at the beginning of 1916. It is necessary to keep an eye on these far distant fields of action at this time, in spite of their insignificance compared with the conflict in Europe, and especially on the western front. In fact, all the fighting that was not taking place in France or Russia and Italy was considered as a "side-show." The opinion was generally held by most laymen as well as by statesmen and generals, that the war would be won on the western front. It proved to be quite true when we look at the results directly. But indirectly, the war could not have been won on the western front if these side-shows, the fighting in Mesopotamia, Palestine and the Balkans, had not weakened and destroyed the military power of Turkey and Bulgaria, and thus opened the way to attack Austria and put her out of the war. So these distant fields of operation had a very distinct strategic value in the Allied

plans, and we must watch what is going on there in connection with the immensely larger battles in Europe.

The campaign of 1916 had two tremendous battles in which each side sought to win a decision. These were the Battle of Verdun and the Battle of the Somme. Neither of these battles won a decision for either side, but each marked a turn in the tide of the war. Two other operations had a decided effect upon the fortunes of the belligerents, though neither was fought on the same immense scale as the battle in Picardy along the Somme or the battle on the heights of the Meuse before Verdun. The Titans were struggling in France, but heroic conflicts took place in Italy and Roumania. Altogether 1916 was a momentous year for the nations at war. Looking back upon the events of this year we can see what was invisible at the time. The tide had turned in favor of the Allies and the first evidence of it was the peace proposal made by Germany late in the year. Germany sought to accomplish through negotiations what she could not achieve upon the field of battle. When she said, "Look at the map and see the extent of our victories, so why not let us come to terms and make peace," it was not the voice of a victor that was speaking, but the voice of one who, holding conquests had not won; and unless peace made the conquests permanent, the continuance of war meant the loss of them, and decisive defeat. A real victor never proposes peace; the vanquished does that. And Germany was conquered when she failed to take Verdun, and on top of this failure the British made their first strong blow in the war, and

with a new weapon, the tank, they showed that the strongest trench position can be broken and taken.

But let us peek into Asia for a moment and see what is taking place before we look upon the heroic and immortal defense of Verdun, and follow the British through the agony of smashing, almost yard by yard, the strongly fortified German trench systems along the Somme on those hot days of July and August in 1916.

The British army, consisting largely of colonials, accompanied by river crafts of all descriptions up the Tigris, had reached Ctesiphon, an ancient city several miles beyond Kut-el-Amara. Here they were defeated by the Turks and fell back upon Kut-el-Amara where they were besieged. The city was entirely surrounded by the Turks who were under the command of Marshal von Der Goltz, a German officer. A relief expedition under command of General Sir Percy Lake, of about ninety thousand men, started early in January to rescue General Townshend's beleaguered troops. The advance was during the wet season and the troops had to march and fight over sodden ground. The Turks were defeated in two pitched battles. To avoid, however, some difficulties of a direct advance and attack, the British at a certain point decided to cross the Tigris and move up the left bank to capture the Turkish position at the Dujailah redoubt. To do this the troops had to make a night's march across the desert. This was a perilous task because there was no water supply, and the consequences in case of failure would be very grave. Gen-

eral Aylmer was in command of this particular operation, which began on March 7th.

After thirty hours of fighting the British had to give up more from exhaustion and lack of water than from the steadiness of the Turkish defense. The British withdrew to Wadi, where they were hemmed in by the floods from the Tigris. By April 4th the floods had receded enough to let General Aylmer try once more to take the Turkish positions and advance to the relief of General Townshend's troops at Kut-el-Amara. The British now stormed the Turkish forts on both banks of the river. Umm-el-Hanna was taken; at Sanna-i-yat they were repulsed; Beit-Aiessa was taken and held; another attack was made on Sanna-i-yat but after some success the British were driven back. General Aylmer's troops were now worn out after eighteen days of continued attacks. News reached the British lines that there were only six days' supplies left in Kut-el-Amara where General Townshend's troops, suffering from fever and bombardment by the Turks, were awaiting rescue. General Aylmer had reached to within seven miles of the beleaguered town, but on April 28th General Townshend surrendered to the Turks with 2,970 English and 6,000 Indian troops.

It was the first surrender of a British garrison to the enemy in the war. British prestige in the east fell tremendously. At home the surrender caused a wave of anger and disappointment. The nation had been humbled by the Turks, of all England's enemies who owed her the most in gratitude.

So the first Mesopotamian campaign came to a disastrous end and it was many months before another advance up the Tigris was begun.

While the British were fighting so hard to reach Kut-el-Amara the Russians between the Black and Caspian seas were coming down from the Caucasus and pushing into Turkish Armenia. Grand Duke Nicholas after his defeat by the Austro-Germans on the Polish front had been relieved of his command and made governor of the Caucasus and put in command of the army there. The Grand Duke was a soldier of great ability, as his handling of the Russian armies in pulling them out of the German traps on the eastern front showed, and though he was sent to a minor field of activity he began to display his great qualities as a leader.

The Russians under the command of the Grand Duke began an advance into Armenia early in February and by the sixteenth the strong fortress of Erzerum was captured. Soon afterwards Trebizond, another great fortress on the Black Sea, was in Russian hands. They reached the Lake Van region, driving the Turks before them. Turkish Armenia was rapidly being conquered and the back door to Constantinople was breaking on its hinges. A contingent of Russian troops advanced further southward through Kurdestan into Persia to join the British coming up the Tigris from Barsa. They reached Hamadan and then moved westward to Kermanshan, from which place some Cossacks crossed the frontier into Mesopotamia to the Diala river, a branch of the Tigris north-

east of Bagdad. The Cossacks were not in sufficient force to push on, and the Russian advance came to a halt. Grand Duke Nicholas had captured considerable Turkish territory beside inflicting heavy losses upon the Turkish armies, and in this way his campaign was of great value though its direct effect upon the war was of minor importance. The result of his victories was to leave the Turk less strong to fight the Allies in Mesopotamia and Palestine later on.

On the Western Front

The Battle of Verdun—"They Shall Not Pass"

We now turn back to the western front and to the first of the big battles that was fought there in 1916. In a war that had already reached beyond proportions in men engaged and guns fired that men had thought possible, was to come a still greater struggle. The fight for Verdun was epical. It was epical not merely for its momentum of men and steel, but for the spirit in the armies on each side, the spirit that was determined to conquer as well as the spirit that was determined to defend. Only there was this difference in the two spirits, the difference between might and right, in which the right became invincible through sheer faith and devotion, and crowned the defenders with heroic glory and the name of the place defended with immortality. Thus you see all the material strength of man in all the many devices of modern war armored the German spirit with confident calculation that

Verdun would be taken, and France pierced to her very heart. The French were in no way as strong as the Germans in the machinery of war and beside were at a great disadvantage in their position and the transportation systems so necessary to bring up reënforcements and supplies, but their spirit had an invisible armor that no earthly might could pierce. The invisible and mystical power of God filled the soul of the French army and they fought for their country not only because they loved it as their home but also because it was the threshold of Human Liberty.

Before Verdun Germany assembled a mighty host of men and guns. What she had done in the way of preparation before Warsaw and on the Dunajec was surpassed many times. There were concentrated 1,500 large guns on a narrow front of seven miles. It was arranged so that these heavy guns could be moved up into position as rapidly as the infantry advanced. In fact the Germans intended that the artillery should do the major part of the work, the infantry merely clearing up the destroyed trenches and wreckage so the guns could take their advanced positions. The distance from the German lines to Verdun was slightly over eight miles, and in following this method the Germans believed they could reach Verdun in four days. It was the army of the German Crown Prince, composed of the best soldiers of the empire, under the real and direct command of General Count von Haeseler, whose task it was to assault and take Verdun.

Verdun lies in a valley sitting on the west bank of

the river Meuse. To the north is a ridge running east and west, on which were a number of old forts; beyond these are several hills, among them Hill 304 and Le Mort Homme (Dead Man's Hill), which were held by the French and the scene of heavy fighting. But on the east side of the river was a long plateau about six hundred feet high and eight or nine miles long running slightly northwest and southeast. Along this plateau were several hills. This plateau and range of hills are called the Heights of the Meuse and separates the Plain of the Woëvre on the east from the river Meuse on the west. On the hills that ran along the crest of the plateau were the forts around which the terrific struggle centered during the first five days of the battle. The town of Verdun itself was of little military importance. It was soon reduced to ruins by the German guns. Both of the railroads that ran into the city were under fire of the German artillery so that troops, guns and supplies had to be sent by motor transports over a single road to the front. No wonder there was confidence in the words of the German Crown Prince to his soldiers before the battle began, in which he said, "I, William, see the German Fatherland compelled to pass to the attack." They really meant, "I, William, shall see you take Verdun."

A little after seven o'clock on the morning of February 21, 1916, the Germans opened the battle with a furious attack. The first line of trenches held by French Territorials across the Heights of the Meuse, for a distance of seven miles, were pounded out of existence. The next

day the Germans came on with an even fiercer deluge of shells, and soon the second line of trenches were blasted away. The fighting now was in the open, and in the midst of a severe snowstorm. The cold was intense, the wounded freezing to death where they fell. At the end of four days the Germans had advanced four miles and were in possession of Fort Douaumont from which they looked down upon Verdun four miles away. The capture of Fort de Vaux, a few hundred yards to the east, and Fort de Souville, a mile in front of them to the south, and the road to the Verdun would be open. Without reënforcements the French Territorials that fought on the Heights of the Meuse were exhausted. A crisis had been reached not only for the brave defenders who under the most terrible punishment of the German artillery had only yielded ground by inches, but for all France. France had now to decide whether to defend Verdun or let the Germans take it.

General Castelnau who had been sent to command at Verdun when the battle broke, decided to defend the city. But General Pétain came with the troops that were to be thrown into the breach. Day and night over the highways and into the road that led to Verdun the motor transports, working like clockwork, rolled towards the city with troops and guns and munitions and supplies. They came not a day too late.

On February 26th a French counter-attack on the Douaumont Plateau brought the head of the German advance to a halt. General Pétain had thrown an army

across the Meuse, and while the counter-attack was taking place, and holding with a grim purpose, his troops were digging defensive positions, and bringing up and placing artillery. The barrier had been thrown across the German front which brought the first stage of the Battle of Verdun to an end. What followed was the siege of Verdun, which lasted until the end of August. If the resistance of the French Territorials in the five days' battle had been heroic, the immovable defense of the French army during the long siege was glorious.

It was during this siege that the French poilu echoed in his heart the remark of the masterly leader, General Pétain, that "They shall not pass!" It was not only the fervent battlecry of those thousands upon thousands of Frenchmen who so willingly laid down their lives before Verdun, but it was the agonized watchword of all France and the Allied world. Those words, each one a fiery symbol of hope and salvation, rose out of the despair of those awful first five days of the battle; rose from doubt and defeat, until the succor of Pétain's reënforcements and Pétain's genius brought the wheels of the German juggernaut to a halt. From this the words became lit with enthusiasm. "They shall not pass" rose from the altar of sacrifice, and the music of them, both in speech and meaning, became a holy anthem to the ears of the dying and a beatitude to the ears of the tired and broken but unconquered spirit of the living.

Stopped on the Douaumont Plateau the Germans shifted their attacks to the left bank of the Meuse to Dead

Man's Hill and Hill 304. Here during March, April and May the Germans poured their men in with reckless indifference to losses. The object they sought was gained, that is to prevent the French from attacking the Germans on their flank on the Douaumont Plateau. The French gave up these blood-stained hills when they became no longer worth the price in men to hold. But they did not do so before the Germans were made to pay in losses far more than the hills were worth.

At the same time the Germans were making such a mighty effort to capture Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304, they were making a mightier effort to capture Fort de Vaux on the right bank of the river on the Heights of the Meuse. This was the most titanic of all the Verdun fighting because the fall of this fort opened the way for an advance upon the Thiaumont redoubt and Fort de Souville, the last important defenses before Verdun. It took the Germans three months to surround Fort de Vaux. Before this had happened Major Raynal and his little garrison of 600 men had for weeks withstood all attacks, keeping in communication with his superiors by carrier pigeons and heliograph. The garrison fought on until food and water were gone. The Germans had used every one of their cruelest devices to shake the stubborn spirit of the defenders. The inside of the fort was bombed, poison gas and liquid fire poured down the galleries, and yet the brave defenders held on. But when food and water had been used up the end came, and the heroic garrison surrendered.

It was now the beginning of June and the Germans made one vast last effort in the center, pointing southwest from Fort Douaumont, to advance and take Fort de Souville which alone stood in the way of complete victory. If Fort de Souville fell the French would have to fall back upon Forts St. Michel and Belleville about a mile north of Verdun, and which were untenable owing to the cross-fire from the German batteries on Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304 to the northwest, and from the Heights of the Meuse to the east.

After two months of severe fighting the Germans had only advanced from the Douaumont Plateau on the right to Fort de Vaux on the left, a little more than a mile. They were stopped before Fort de Souville, less than three miles from Verdun, after six months of the most grueling effort. They *did not pass,* and before they could try again the roar of guns in Picardy told them their last chance had come and gone. If the Germans had one consolation, it was in the belief that the long agony at Verdun had bled France white. It was a poor consolation for the shame and defeat that was Germany's, but it was a consolation wholly imaginary. Of the more than half a million men who went down to death in the long struggle for Verdun, by far the larger number wore the uniform of the imperial master whom they uselessly served in trying to add a vain luster to his military pride.

And France,—France alone stood with her body in the breach, torn and bleeding, but immovable. If the haughty Brandenburgers that took the empty and abandoned husk

of Fort Douaumont stand as a symbol of the German effort at Verdun, Pétain's Iron Corps, the lads of Brittany and Lorraine, who held the gray avalanche in its tracks for two days until reënforcements came to bar the way, stand for the symbol of the French victory. It was glorious and immortal!

The Battle of the Somme

While the Germans were at the height of their final effort to advance upon and take Fort de Souville, westward in Picardy the guns of the British broke in a mighty roar beginning the Battle of the Somme. This battle is notable for its test of the new British army, with which for the first time Great Britain threw her full strength into the war.

The battle opened on the morning of July first on a front of twenty miles from Gommecourt, south of Arras, to Maricourt, east of Albert. On the British right were the French under the command of General Foch. The onslaught of the first day was a terrific punishment for the British in spite of the advance that was made on the southern end of the line towards the east. Towards the north the British were held up all along the line. The Germans had been turned out of seven miles of their front line, 3,500 prisoners captured with a quantity of material and machine-guns. But the British had lost 50,000 men. They paid this price for a mile of territory.

The French action in the whole Somme battle was

mainly in support of the British. But the seasoned veterans under General Foch's command swept forward five miles on this first day, capturing many villages and 6,000 prisoners. They struck east towards Péronne, and north towards Combles. After the first day of fighting General Haig, the English commander, was confronted with a perplexing problem. Severe as the opening bombardment had been, the German positions were not destroyed. The attacking waves of British infantry were met and separated by the artillery barrages of the Germans thrown from the heights they held, which commanded the whole area of fighting. Machine-gunners came out of the dug-outs with their deadly instruments and mowed the British down like grain.

General Haig's problem was whether, after the failure to smash through, on a wide front, he should fight an infinite series of local engagements and so eat his way into the German systems of forts, trenches and redoubts, and force a retirement. On the 2nd of July the British commander declined to burrow a hole through the two wings of the German front, get at the enemy's rear and thus loosen his grip on the territory between the two wings. The Battle of the Somme became what is known as a battle of attrition, that is to wear and tear down the enemy's man power by forcing him to throw in reserves that could not be replaced.

For nearly two weeks after the battle began the British were engaged in clearing up the territory between the captured first-line German trenches and the second line

that was to be attacked. Now began that long series of agonizing efforts to the northeast which came to a climax in the capture of Contalmaison and the breaking of the second line of German trenches. The latter place was held by the crack Prussian Guards, the pride of the Kaiser's army, whom the raw lads of a Yorkshire and Dorsetshire regiment finally drove with severe losses out of the place. The British kept on to Barentin, where they opened a gap three miles wide in the German line. But this gap was of little significance unless it could be widened for further advances. The fighting up to the capture of Barentin had raged doggedly around Bailiff Wood, Mametz Wood, Bernafay Wood, and Trones Wood, the strongly held positions that had to be taken before the British could attack the second line of German trenches which rested on the top of a ridge above Pozières, eastward to Longueval before Delville Wood.

On this tangled and complicated battlefield it is better from now on to the end of the battle to follow the two British armies that carried the advance on the right and left of the gap at Barentin. General Sir Hubert Gough was in command of the Fifth Army on the left and General Sir Henry Rawlinson in command of the Fourth Army on the right. It was the latter army that did the heaviest fighting.

On July 23rd the Fifth Army turned westward in an attack upon Pozieres on the way to Thiepval, the third German line of defense. Rawlinson's Fourth Army turned east upon the third line running north and south

from Ginchy to Guillemont. The fighting in both directions was very severe and prolonged, each step of the way calling for innumerable local engagements, in which the losses on both sides were heavy. By September 15th the British had reached Thiepval on the left and taken Ginchy and Guillemont on the right, bringing the front up before Martinspuich in the center to the north of Barentin. In the meantime the French had helped the British to extend the front towards the east, pushing close to Combles and Péronne along the Bapaume-Péronne highway.

On September 15th a new stage in the Battle of the Somme began with an advance all along the line from Pozières Ridge to Bouleaux Wood, a distance of ten miles, the widest front on which the British had attacked since the opening day of the battle, July first.

All along the line the objectives were taken. Thiepval, Courcelette, Flers, Morval, Combles, Fregicourt, and Bouchavesnes fell. Five thousand prisoners and a dozen guns were captured. After weeks of fighting, carefully and skillfully prepared German strongholds had been taken almost foot by foot, and at last the enemy's defense was weakened. He had no more entrenchments in the rear that could withstand the terrific onslaughts of General Haig's troops.

On the first day of the advance a new weapon of attack was thrown against the Germans at Courcelette. The Germans were amazed and terrified to see rolling down upon them huge, lumbering machines from which belched fire and death. These awkward but formidable engines of

destruction were the tanks. Taking the idea from the farm-tractor, the English had invented a land-fort that moved over the ground like a caterpillar, tumbling in and out of trenches, and riding down the obstacles that stood in its way. They moved very slowly, so that the infantry had to reduce its speed not to outrun them. But they were irresistible against machine-gun and rifle attack, nosing their way into machine-gun nests to the consternation of the enemy, who turned and fled or were killed where they stood. The British troops who accompanied these awkward, creeping monsters, were greatly amused at the antics they displayed, and went into battle shaken with laughter at the sight they made. The appearance of the tanks was a great mystery to the enemy because the secret of them had been closely guarded. It took a great deal of adventurous daring on the part of the crews that manned them. Though they did effective work, many broke down from defective mechanism, though none were captured by the Germans. An experiment in the fight for Courcelette, they proved of such decided value that the type was developed and enlarged and the weapon became one of the most dependable in future attacks upon defenses deeply and thickly protected with barbed-wire entanglements. In a way the tank was the inventive answer of the English to the Germans' poison gas. And the English invention was at the same time the more destructive and the more humane. It not only killed and killed sharply, which war as a killing permits, but it destroyed defenses, of earth, steel,

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THE TERRIBLE ENGINE MOVED CLUMSILY UPON THE GERMAN LINES

and concrete, which the cunning devices of the enemy had created.

In October, after three months of severe fighting, General Haig saw before him the prospects of a further advance that would yield big results. The Germans had been pushed off the high ground they held, they had been driven out of their last systems of fortified positions. Between the Oise and the Scarpe rivers they had been forced back, leaving two dangerous salients on their right and left wings. Though further gains were yet to be made by the British before the battle died down, the hopes of inflicting a disastrous defeat upon the enemy was dashed by the bad weather which set in early in the autumn of 1916. Heavy and continuous rains turned the ground into a perfect quagmire. It was impossible in many places for the infantry to advance owing to the mud, and the shell-holes filled with water that covered the broken ground.

One more offensive movement, however, took place at the northern end of the line on the west bank of the river Ancre, to Beaumont-Hamel. This advance, which was made on November 13th, after a brilliant attack, was also brought to a stop by the increasing bad weather of the autumn. But the British had flattened out a considerable salient and brought their line up on an even front from Beaumont-Hamel to Le Sars and on by Le Transloy, where it bent southward to join the French before Péronne and St. Quentin.

So the first Battle of the Somme came to end in November after five months of terrific fighting. It had worn

down the German armies that had opposed the advance. And it ended with a threat that the German General Staff did not dare to ignore, as we shall see later when the campaign for 1917 begins. But the five months of fighting had exacted an enormous toll on both sides. The furthest advance of the British and French during the five months of fighting had been for a distance of little more than seven miles. Something like two hundred square miles of territory had been recaptured, and about 80,000 prisoners. The Germans suffered a total loss of a half-million men, but the Anglo-French loss was nearly three-quarters of a million men. One indisputable fact the Battle of the Somme proved, was, that after two years of preparation, the British, in spite of Germany's doubt when the conflict started, were in the war with mighty armies that meant to fight to the end.

On the Italian Front

About the time that the French, after three months of desperate fighting, had decided to yield Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304 to the Germans to the north of Verdun, and while the British were preparing, but had not yet struck their first blow on the Somme, the Austrians delivered a sudden and dangerous stroke at Italy. It will be recalled that the situation on the Italian front was fraught with considerable danger. Italy had thrown troops north into the Trentino to cover Austrian attacks down the mountainous passes that led on to the Venetian and Lombard

plains. The real strength of the Italian armies was not here, but far to the eastward where they had crossed the Isonzo River below Gorizia to the sea, and above on the western bank of the stream stood ready to push further into Austrian territory. Should the Austrians break through the Trentino they would be in the rear of the Isonzo armies and it would be impossible for them to escape disaster.

This is what the Austrians under Archduke Charles, who a little later was to succeed Francis Joseph as emperor of Austria, attempted to do. With nearly 500,000 troops and 2,000 guns under his command, Archduke Charles came blasting down the Trentino about the middle of May. Between the Val Lagarina and the Val Zugana the Austrians came down through Arsiero and Asiago, over the Communi Plateau to within a few miles of Schio on the edge of the Venetian Plain. They reached this position about the first of June. Count Cadorna, the Italian commander-in-chief, brought up a fresh army at this point and checked the advance. He immediately began a counter-attack along the entire front. The Austrians were first held, and then driven back, so that within the next ten days the Archduke Charles had lost all that had been gained by the offensive.

The speedy recovery by the Italians of the ground that was lost, while in a measure due to the intrepid fighting of Cadorna's fresh troops, was also helped by the menace of Brusiloff's drive in Volhynia and Galicia which drew some of Austria's best battalions from the Trentino. The Aus-

trian attempt at this time had no effect upon the Isonzo advance, and only proved a costly adventure in men and material that they could ill afford to waste.

The Austrian advance had one decided effect upon the Italians. This was to make them more strongly guard this approach of the enemy into the heart of northern Italy. So defenses were prepared and rail communications constructed to enable the defenders to stiffen their resistance at any point heavily attacked. When these were completed, towards the first of August, the Italians turned to the offensive on the Isonzo.

The central point of attack was the Gorizia bridgehead, which had defied the Italian advance for nearly a year. On August 6th, the attack began. To the north and south of Gorizia the Italians advanced, taking most difficult positions. Two days later Cadorna's troops on three sides closed in and captured the town with 20,000 prisoners, and immense stores of supplies. It was a brilliant achievement which thrilled Italy from end to end. But it was only the beginning of the Italian advance, a beginning that was to proceed no further for some months to come. With a grip on the Bainzizza Plateau to the north, where there was to be bitter fighting over a prolonged period before progress was made; with a firm footing on the Garso Plateau to the south, and less than sixteen miles from Trieste, the goal of Italian aspiration, and where even bitterer fighting was to take place that brought no reward, the Italian armies stood helpless after a great success.

The stopping and beating back of the Austrian wave

that flowed down the Trentino, together with the enormous strain that the advance and capture of Gorizia imposed, had brought the Italians to the point of exhaustion. But more than spent energy was spent ammunition, to the Italians. They had used lavishly of their store in the two great battles, and the nation could not replenish the store from its own resources of labor and material. Italy was as dependent as Russia on France and England for munitions. So Italy had to wait, wait for the eventful year 1917, which saw her make a noble effort, meet a great disaster, and arise from it in shining glory.

On the Eastern Front

Russia's Last Campaign

Turning to the eastern front at a time when the French were fighting desperately before Verdun, the British were staging the great drive that was tortuously to drag across Picardy, and when the Italians were girding themselves to stop the Austrians at the edge of the Venetian Plain, we see the last flash in the pan of war by the Russian armies. The Russian troops were fighting for the last time under, and for, an imperial master. Military Russia was doomed to expire with the dynasty that it supported, and for whose glory and advantage it had for centuries past gone meekly forth to the wars that the czars had declared. It is a strange destiny to contemplate, that of a nation actually fighting for generations in behalf of masters who took the people's victories to tighten upon them the chains of

slavery, and the slaves refusing to fight for their liberty when the opportunity came. But this was the tragedy of Russia, one of the most extraordinary experiences that ever befell a nation in the world's history.

General Brusiloff, a fiery and energetic soldier, was in command of the Russian armies. Four of them opposed five Austrian armies from Pinsk on the Pripet Marshes to the Roumanian border. Altogether there were over 2,000,000 men engaged when the battle commenced, but the Austrians increased their numbers from the Italian front as the conflict developed. The front of attack was three hundred miles long.

A tremendous battle was begun when the Russian guns commenced a bombardment all along the three hundred mile front on June 4th. In the first few days the Russians under General Kaledin swept forward fifty miles, overwhelming the army of the Austrian Archduke Joseph Ferdinand, and captured the great Volhynian fortresses of Dubno and Lutsk. The river Styr was passed and the fleeing Austrians pursued towards Kovel. Their loss in prisoners alone amounted to 70,000 men.

Further south the Austrians had been cleared out of Bukowina and were in retreat towards the Carpathian Mountains. On this front General Pflanzer had lost during the first week of the advance over 40,000 prisoners. Only in the center did the Austrians hold their ground, but this was growing more dangerous each day, as on both of the Austrian wings they had been badly beaten and driven back for miles. From the north and from the

south the Russians seemed in a fair way to advance upon Lemberg, the Galician capital. The Austrians seemed quite helpless to cope with the situation and Germany came to her help to save the important railroad center at Kovel. At this place the Russian advance was checked. It was now the end of June and the first stage of the offensive was over. The Russians had captured 200,000 prisoners and hundreds of cannon, but their own losses had been enormous.

Before beginning another general advance along the entire line General Brusiloff straightens his northern wing. This he does during the first two weeks in July, and the line runs from the Pripet Marshes to Brody which had been taken. The Austrian center under General Bothmer still stands its ground, and is too strong in its position to be turned out on the left or northern flank. General Brusiloff then orders the Russians under General Lechitsky, who broke the Austrians in Bukowina, to take Stanislau and advance upon Halicz, thus turning General Bothmer out of his position from the south. The Russians reach Stanislau on August 10th and General Bothmer safely retires behind the Zlota Lipa river before Brzerany. Here, on August 15th, the Russians under General Scherbachoff attack the Austrians in a battle that lasted three weeks, at the end of which they were forced back upon Halicz to the south. Roumania's entry in the war had drawn Lechitsky's army south to the Carpathians to protect the flank of the Roumanian army invading Transylvania.

By September Brusiloff's campaign had come to an end. It had been fought on a large scale, thousands of miles of territory had been captured, and hundreds of thousands of prisoners taken. The impetuosity and dash of the commander-in-chief had awakened the admiration and hope of the Allies that Russia had completely recovered from her defeats of the previous year. When the offensive ended Lemberg was but twenty-five miles from the Russian front, and there seemed every prospect that on the next advance it would be captured by the Czar's troops for a second time. It was a victorious group of armies that stood from the Pripet Marshes to the Roumanian border, before Kovel, Lemberg and Halicz in September, after a three months' campaign. But in the shadow of them was defeat, that reached stealthily and invisibly from an idol called license, which the people of the white capital in the north had set up to reign on the throne of the Little Father who was cast out upon the ruins of time.

The Conquest of Roumania

The success of Brusiloff's advance through Volhynia and Bukowina which I have just described, convinced Roumania that the time was ripe to attack Austria and invade Transylvania, an Austrian province largely inhabited by Roumanians. Accordingly on August 27th Roumania declared war and immediately threw troops across the frontier. General Lechitsky with the Ninth

Russian Army, as was noted in the last chapter, came down from the Dneister about Stanislau to the Carpathians to protect the right flank of the Roumanians, and move across into Hungary on their success. Three of the four Roumanian armies poured through the passes of the Transylvanian Alps, while the fourth was to stand along the Danube and guard the Dobrudja to the Black Sea. The Roumanians pushed forward rapidly and soon a large portion of Transylvania was in their hands. Kronstadt was captured and General Averscu's forces stood at the gates of Hermannstadt, two important cities.

Flushed with this early success the Roumanians were destined to taste a bitter disappointment and defeat. The first disappointment came with Russia's betrayal of her weaker ally. A new Russian premier, Boris Stürmer, was intensely pro-German and refused utterly to send the Roumanians help of any kind. A second disappointment was the action of Bulgaria. Russia had convinced the Roumanians that Bulgaria would remain neutral, but as soon as the Roumanians had crossed into Transylvania Bulgaria declared war. In less than two weeks from the beginning of the campaign General von Mackensen with an army of Bulgarians, Turks and Germans was attacking in the Dobrudja. This was a serious turn of affairs for the Roumanians. Withdrawing some troops from the north they were sent south to reënforce the Dobrudja army and check von Mackensen's advance upon the Bucharest-Constanza railroad.

The Roumanians had met with little opposition to their

advance into Transylvania. But things were now to take a different turn. A mighty German army was gathering under General von Falkenhayn to act in harmony with von Mackensen in the south for the purpose of crushing Roumania. On September 20th Falkenhayn's drive began.

His plan was to defeat singly the three Roumanian armies in Transylvania, drive through the Passes and descend upon Bucharest to link up with von Mackensen coming from the Danube in the south. The Roumanians were decisively beaten and Falkenhayn's forces moved through the Passes down on the Wallachian Plain. Late in October von Mackensen had moved upon and captured Constanza, the only Roumanian seaport on the Black Sea. Early in December the forces of Falkenhayn and von Mackensen met before Bucharest. On the fourth was fought the Battle of Argelu, the last effort of the Roumanians to save their capital. Defeated, Bucharest was evacuated the next day, and on the sixth the Germans took possession. The Government fled to Jassy near the Russian border. Two-thirds of Roumania was in the hands of the Germans. Most of the great oil wells and the wheat crops which the Germans so much needed and expected to capture, were destroyed by the Roumanian army in retreat. In the hundred days' campaign General Avercu's forces which had started with 300,000 men in the field and 300,000 levies in reserve, had lost half their total number in killed, wounded and prisoners. Roumania had now gone the way of Belgium and Serbia, but her plight in a sense

was worse. Entirely isolated from the friends that could help her, she was at the mercy of Germany. Russia she could no longer trust, and if she could, the Russians were soon to become as helpless as herself, and of no assistance. To this helplessness, following the Russian collapse, was to be added humiliation when von Mackensen later imposed upon the nation a shameful and tyrannic peace.

The Army of the Orient

We close the year 1916 with a glance at Salonica in Macedonia where a large Allied force under General Sarrail was gathered. Troops were first landed here to go to the help of Serbia in the previous year when the Germans and Bulgarians had attacked and invaded King Peter's country. This help came too late, and the British and French, after their failure to reach the Serbians, retired upon Salonica. Finally the Serbs after their defeat, and reorganization on the Island of Corfu, were brought to the city and joined the forces of France, England and Italy. There were also small numbers of troops from other countries, so that the Army of the Orient, as it was known, was a queer and picturesque mixture of many nations.

Despite its readiness and complete fitness to fight, General Sarrail did not dare to advance from his base in the city. He feared an attack from the Greek king, Constantine, who was playing into Germany's hands, if an advance was made against the Bulgarians, who were

allowed to take two forts, Kavala and Drama in Macedonia. When the Bulgarians made an advance from the west and threatened Salonica itself, the Greek people would no longer tolerate the actions of the King and their sentiment so changed, that General Sarrail felt safe to open an attack against the troops of Czar Ferdinand.

About the middle of September, after its long inactivity, a small force of Serbians, Russians and French, drove the Bulgarians beyond Ostrovo Lake towards Monastir. Monastir lies in the bend of the Cenea river along whose course was the only feasible line of advance northward in this mountainous country to the Bulgarian border. Before the city on the east is a plain and on the north a range of hills. The Allies came along the eastern heights which command the plain and drove the Bulgarians out of Monastir which the Serbians entered on November 19th. The Bulgarians, however, held the hills to the north, from which they could not be shaken. So the campaign came to an end with the Serbians once more on their own soil. The situation, however, was to remain as we now leave it, for two years, or until the final blow which on all the fronts was to bring the war to a victorious end for the Allies. During this time the Balkan area was to fade from the attention of the world.

CHAPTER IV

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1917

THE year 1917 opened hopefully for the Allies on the western front. It was still the opinion of many in high places that the war would be won on this front and that whatever happened elsewhere would finally be determined by the results in France and Flanders. Whether this was an attempt to minimize the seriousness of the German victories in the East, I do not know. Those victories were very solid when the new year opened, and there was no way in sight by which they could be shaken. Solid as was Germany's military position in the East as a superstructure, it was not necessary to have very discerning eyes to see that the props on which it stood were not strong. Austria, Bulgaria and Turkey had constantly to call upon Germany for help in one way or another, to pull them out of difficult places. They were never secure from a military point of view without the support of German troops and generals. Neither could the inhabitants of these countries stand the burdens of war as they were stood in the German empire. When the time came that made it imperative for the Kaiser to throw all of his military strength on the western front his allies would be sure to crumble. As long as Germany herself was safe and it was a case of saving Austria, Bulgaria or

Turkey, she could always manage to save them. But once Germany was in peril, and had to think of nothing but her own self-defense, her three allies could neither save themselves nor her.

Ever since the Battle of the Somme the initiative on the western front was in the hands of the Allies. This meant that France or England could choose the time and place of battle which would naturally be to their advantage. Thus the Germans saw the Allies slowly but surely forcing them back to the frontier and with each mile making the situation more difficult. The end of 1916 found the Germans looking defeat in the face unless something was done. Fortunately for them the early coming of winter stopped the fighting before General Haig could reap the rewards of his long battle, which was but a preparation for the final blow. Bad weather had more than once during the war favored the enemy as if it had a special interest in his welfare. But never before had it brought the Germans such an opportunity as they made use of during the winter of 1916-17.

Two events happened early in 1917 which call for comment before we follow the course of the armies. They had such a bearing upon the military developments of the war from now on that their significance cannot be detached from the immediate events under review.

The first of these events was the Russian revolution and the absolute collapse of the Russian empire as a factor in the war. The Czar was overthrown in March. With the internal conditions in Russia we are not concerned

Painting by L. A. Shafer
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"THE SPIRIT OF 1917"

here, only their effect upon the military situation of the Allies. The new government in Russia made a declaration that they would stand by the Allies, and a fitful attempt was made to carry on an offensive in Volhynia. A slight advance was made which resulted in the capture of Halicz and a number of prisoners. But the Russian armies had been infected with socialistic doctrines and threw down their arms. Positions that were won at a great sacrifice of blood were given up without a struggle, the soldiers abandoning the trenches and deserting to the rear. These poor peasants were slaughtered by thousands by the German artillery as they fled in mad haste from the front. Russia was now definitely out of the war.

The result of the Russian collapse was to release all the German armies on the eastern front to be thrown against France and England in the west.

The only hopeful sign that the Allies could see piercing through the Russian cloud was the entry of the United States in the war. This took place in April. But America was not prepared, was thousands of miles from the conflict, and this hopeful sign was dimmed with the doubt of the Republic being ready in time to balance and then turn the scales against the Germans. France and England waited tremblingly to see who would win the race, whether the Germans could turn and throw their whole weight and win a decision before America was in Europe with a mighty army, or whether America could place her troops in the field before Germany was ready to strike a final blow.

The German Retreat

The fighting in 1917 does not take on the momentous character of the fighting in 1916. Before the British and French were ready to start the big offensive that was planned, they were surprised to find one morning in March that the Germans had slipped away over a wide front from Arras in the north to Soissons in the south. Between the two points was a distance of over seventy miles. Many thousand square miles of French territory were given up and France was thrilled at this voluntary return of her own soil. But a wave of anger followed the wave of joy, not only in France but throughout the civilized world, when it was learned that it was nothing but a barren, desolate waste of towns and farms, of choked and gutted roads, of ruined orchards and woodlands that the Germans left behind. This devastation was not the result of battle, as so many places in France and Flanders where the armies in deadly grip had fought, but deliberate, wanton, cruel destruction by a sullen foe. The Germans did this dastardly work not only to make the present suffer but the future as well. Young fruit trees were destroyed that they may not delight and nourish the generations of the future, wells were poisoned that the thirst may not be quenched. Nothing could be seen but savage destruction of everything made by God and man; the humble peasant's cottage with its rough furniture as well as the castle with its costly and elaborate furniture.

The Germans called this their "strategic retreat." A

wholly voluntary affair, for which they had a definite purpose in mind. No one believed this, but took it as a savage acknowledgment of defeat. It was, in a sense, due to defeat, but it was, as the Germans hinted, the first step towards a gigantic preparation for the mighty blow they intended to strike in the following year. Ever since the campaign of 1916 was over the Germans had begun preparing a system of defenses in the rear which extended for many miles. It was called the "Hindenburg Line," after the general who was the idol of the German public. The Kaiser had made him his Chief of Staff, and it was von Hindenburg's brain that conceived and carried out the retreat, and built that wonderful bastion of defenses known by his name, and which was thought to be impregnable against all attacks.

All through the summer and the next winter the Germans worked on these defenses, and brought their troops from the east to train and prepare for the final blow.

The German General Staff believed that the Allies would not be able to attack for some time owing to the condition of the country over which the retreat passed. It was impossible, they thought, to move guns across the ravished country. Thus the whole Allied plan for the spring campaign would be upset. In this, however, they were deceived. On the ninth of April General Haig opened the Battle of Arras and on April 16th General Nivelle, who had succeeded Joffre as Commander-in-Chief of the French armies, began an offensive to take the Heights of the Aisne just west of Soissons. This was a concerted

action on the part of the French and British armies to outflank the Germans on both wings and force their retirement.

One of the most debated incidents of the war arose from this effort. In two or three days General Nivelle in spite of his tremendous losses, had the prospects of a great victory in his hands, when suddenly the offensive came to a dead halt. It is said that France, appalled at the casualties, through the mouth of her politicians demanded that the slaughter be stopped. It was stopped, General Nivelle relieved of his command and exiled to a post in Morocco. General Pétain, the defender of Verdun, succeeded to the supreme command of the French armies. Later, through the summer, action was renewed before the Heights of the Aisne, and in October troops under General Maistre advanced upon the much coveted Chemin des Dames (Ladies' Road) all along the ridge which had been in the possession of the Germans ever since 1914. By November the French had reached the Oise-Aisne canal beyond the heights, with their left flank on the Forest of Coucy. It was an important advance.

The spectacular fighting of the spring, summer and autumn of this year, however, was on the British end of the line in the north. Here the attempt was made to pierce the front where the old and new German lines met just westward of Lens. Lens was in the coal district of northern France and had been held by the Germans since early in the war. It was a great loss to the French, who were deprived of a large percentage of their coal supply.

The Battle of Arras is notable for two daring and successful exploits. The first was the taking of Vimy Ridge by the Canadians on April 9th, when the battle opened, and the second was the capture of Messines Ridge. The object in taking these places was to command a continuation of the high ground to the north which ran from the ridges that had been won in the Battle of the Somme the previous year. This gave the British a great advantage over the Germans, who were on low ground and exposed to the British guns. A further advance to the north in front of Ypres towards the Menin-Roulers highway would drive the Germans out of Zeebrugge and Ostend and deprive them of these important submarine bases on the Flanders coast. The Third Battle of Ypres was fought from the end of July to the beginning of November.

But the two exploits which I have mentioned demand some attention because of the daring and unique character of the operations. The late summer and autumn fighting, further north in Flanders, could not have been so successful as they were without the taking of Vimy and Messines Ridges. And that fighting came near to turning the Germans from the Flemish seacoast.

Vimy Ridge runs from the northern end of Arras to the southern end of Lens. It had long been occupied by the Germans, who could shell the approaches to Arras on the north and east. The French in 1915 tried to take Vimy Ridge, but suffered a bloody repulse. It had to be attacked by troops coming from Arras, every movement of which would be under German observation on the Ridge

and subjected to a withering gun-fire. The problem for the British was how to prepare and advance upon the Ridge without being seen by the Germans.

This was accomplished by a remarkable piece of military engineering. The town had many deep cellars and excavations around it, and through the winter the two tunneling companies of New Zealanders constructed new tunnels, to which the cellars and excavations were connected. The underground stations thus prepared and fully equipped with water, electric lights and a tramway, and a dressing-station with several hundred beds, were able to accommodate three divisions of troops. Besides, over a thousand miles of twin cables for communication were installed, gun positions erected, emplacements for trench mortars, and dumps for ammunition and engineering stores.

Early in April everything was in readiness and an intense bombardment of the German trenches began. These trenches were well-nigh impregnable. The distance between them was very short. On April 4th the British used a large number of Liven gas projectors, which threw drums of compressed gas into the Germans' second line, causing heavy casualties. On April 8th there was a gas bombardment from four-inch mortars, and early on the 9th an avalanche of shells was poured in from a mass of guns. At five-thirty in the chill April dawn the men sprang out of their caves under Arras and assaulted the Ridge in successive waves. To the north and south of the Ridge the troops advanced to their objectives, while the

Canadians captured the Ridge, and held on against the heaviest counter-attacks.

A splendid victory had been achieved which was a great blow to the Germans. The captures made amounted to 13,000 men; 28 heavy guns, 130 field-guns, 84 trench-mortars, and 250 machine-guns. Though fighting continued around Arras up to May, no great effort was made to advance on anything like the scale that had been prepared to take Vimy Ridge. The next important action was the capture of Messines Ridge, further to the north just south of Ypres.

The German line swung in curves like the letter S in front of Ypres, which at the nearest point was about two miles away. If you reverse the letter **S** so, you will find opposite the city, located on the inside of the upper loop, standing off from the outside of the curve, Passchendaele Ridge. This Ridge figures in the Third Battle of Ypres, fought in the late summer and autumn, as the furthest advance of the British towards the Roulers-Menin road. In the lower loop of the letter is another ridge on the southern end of which is Messines, and on the northern end Wytschaete. This Ridge runs from a point east of Ypres to the river Pys in the south a distance of six miles. To capture the salient in which it lay the British had to penetrate a distance of two miles and a half to Oosttaverne on the eastern side.

General Sir Hubert Plumer, who had been inactive on the extreme north of the Flanders front for two years, was in command of the operation against Messines. There

had been no fighting in this immediate vicinity since the end of 1914.

When it is said that no fighting had taken place in this sector since 1914, it isn't exactly true. There was no fighting of the ordinary sort, that is, on the surface in the light of day or under the cover of night. But there was a battle of moles going on for nearly a year or more. The ground beneath the British position was discovered to be of chalky clay, and as early as January, 1916, the British began, by the most expert engineers, to tunnel under the Ridge. Day and night these human "'moles" bored into the earth, often meeting with great difficulties such as streams of water which had to be pumped out and dammed. Nor were the British alone in carrying on this perilous work. The Germans from their side were tunneling to lay mines, and between the thick walls of earth each tried to discover the direction of the other's galleries to destroy the work that was done. Thus by the means of *camouflets,* that is, a mine with a small charge which is intended to destroy the shafts where the enemy was working, and at the same time not make a great crater, the British and Germans both sought to interfere with the progress of each other's work. There was only one means of discovering where the enemy was tunneling and that was by listening. So with the most delicate instruments and strained nerves, the men in the dark bowels of the earth fought each other. They could tell with marvelous accuracy the progress that was being made by the enemy, and wait patiently for the ripe moment to destroy all the

work that had been laboriously accomplished through long weeks. Between January and June, down to within a day of the attack, twenty-seven of these *camouflets* were exploded, seventeen by the British and ten by the Germans.

The British dug twenty-four mines under Messines Ridge from end to end, and charged them with over a million pounds of ammonal, a tremendously high explosive.

On the evening of June 6th a violent thunderstorm broke over the length of the Ridge, the heavens pounding with giant strokes of deafening noise as if to shut out from the stars the bedlam that was soon to rise from the earth. Between two and three on the morning of the 7th, the sky cleared and the moon spread a mantle of silver over the landscape upon which the pale glimmer of the approaching dawn began to creep. All through the night up to two o'clock in the morning the British bombarded the German positions, and they replied. The Germans were apparently ill at ease. They sent up in the gray dawn rockets and flames as a signal to their artillery to lay down a barrage. The reconnoitering airplanes and observation balloons which began to rise from the British lines gave warning of something afoot. And then at ten minutes past three a terrific explosion lifted the top off the earth at Hill 60 on the northern end of the Ridge. The very depths of the earth were torn and sent flying in the air. It was volcanic. Then before the shock had spent itself nineteen sheets of flames with a roar that no words can describe lit the Ridge from end to end. The war had

brought many strange and terrifying sights, but no spectacle such as this had filled men's eyes. Here for miles the earth was lifted from its bed and suspended in the air where lurid flames, rocks, trees and solid masses of soil, with the shattered remnants of the German trenches, were mixed. If the sight of it was terrifying, the noise of the explosions was terror itself. The earth throbbed and quivered with agony. In London, miles away across land and water, and in many places in Holland, echoes of the explosions were heard like sullen, distant thunder.

Just ten minutes after the mines were exploded the troops assaulted. Up and over the Ridge all along the crest the gallant men of New Zealand, Australian, Irish and English regiments swept, and by evening Messines Ridge was in British hands and the advanced lines carried towards Gaspaard and Oostaverne on the other side.

During the next six or seven weeks the British carried on a series of local engagements straightening out their lines in front of Ypres for a general attack which opened the Third Battle of Ypres on July 31st.

This battle lasted until November, when bad weather again stopped the British advance just as it was in sight of the Roulers-Menin road, the capture of which, with Roulers, would have turned the Germans out of their submarine bases on the Flanders coast. Zillebeke, Sanctuary Wood, Hooge, Zonnebeke, Poelcappelle and Passchendaele Ridge were all taken in this advance after much difficult fighting through the mud and water of the Flemish lowlands. It was the third time the British had fought

with great courage and endurance over this ground sacred to the memory of thousands of British dead who had successfully defended it against the German approach to the Channel. When the battle ended about November 17th, 24,000 prisoners had been captured with 941 machine-guns, 74 big guns, and 138 trench-mortars. The Germans were obliged to throw in nearly eighty divisions, many of which were engaged a number of times. The British losses were also heavy, and though they did not gain all that was hoped for, all the high ground was in their hands, from which the enemy's movements could be observed and from which a new advance could be begun.

Right on the heels of the Third Battle of Ypres came the Battle of Cambrai, one of the few successful surprise attacks of the war that was made on a big scale. In the north, in front of Ypres, the British had broken through a switch of the Hindenburg Line for a distance of over seven miles. In front of Cambrai the Hindenburg Line in its full strength was unbroken. Here was a series of defensive works so huge and intricate in the length and depth of excavations, fortified to the last detail by the skillful German engineers, which seemingly no attack would break. It was an impassable barricade of underground forts. If the positions themselves were impregnable they were lightly held by troops, many of which had been sent north to strengthen the resistance against the British in the Battle of Ypres.

The British, however, in the attack upon Cambrai were to try a new experiment. It was a risky but worth-while

attempt. This was to do away with the usual intensive preliminary artillery bombardment and send forward tanks to destroy the barbed-wire entanglement before the trenches, and subdue their defenders, thus opening the way for the infantry to advance. The ground on the Cambrai front was admirably suited for the tanks, for it was firm and without shell-holes over any considerable area. A clever device was used to help carry the tanks over the trenches. The forward line of tanks carried on their bows large logs of wood which were dropped over the trenches to make a bridge for the tanks to cross. This device worked successfully.

Four hundred tanks were assembled for the attack, and on November 20th the advance began seven miles away from the Hindenburg Line, from Bullecourt in the north to Villers-Chislain in the south. It was a complete surprise and the British reached the very gates of Cambrai, capturing the Hindenburg Line and Bourlon Wood on high ground, which was an important objective.

The Germans, however, soon recovered from the surprise and began throwing in great forces of men on the northern end of the British line to recapture Bourlon Wood. The British made a fatal mistake in not being prepared to take advantage of their success. True, this had been far beyond their expectation, and they were quite as surprised as the Germans at what had taken place. The tanks opened great holes in the enemy's line, but there were not enough troops in reserve to hold the ground gained. A great victory was in the hands of General

Byng, who was in charge of the attack. With sufficient reserves he could have taken Cambrai, which was only three miles away, an important key position that the Germans retained after their retreat in March. But these troops he did not have, and by the end of November the Germans, with strong counter-attacks, were pushing the British back. By this time the initiative was in German hands. On the southern end of the line they had penetrated three miles into the British front, retaking Villers-Guislain, Gonnelieu and Gouzeaucourt and were pushing on to Metz when stopped and turned back.

Heavier and more disastrous fighting, however, took place on the northern end of the line for the possession of Bourlon Wood. The Germans attacked this important place with determination on a four-mile front, soaked it with poison gas and after much hard fighting recaptured it. The Battle of Cambrai may be said to have been fought in two stages. First, the British surprise attack, which was very successful. It brought them a bag of 11,000 prisoners and 145 guns and put the Hindenburg Line in their hands. Second, the counter-offensive of the Germans, in which they claimed 6,000 prisoners and 100 guns. Portions of the Hindenburg Line were retaken, but the balance in British favor was some 11,000 yards.

With the Battle of Cambrai, fighting on the western front comes to an end for the year. At Verdun all through the summer there had been fighting of a severe character. At the end of 1916 the French in two or three sharp thrusts of the Heights of the Meuse regained much of the

ground and forts the Germans had taken through the previous eight months. Through the summer in which we have followed the operations before Ypres, there were prolonged and bloody fights on the left bank of the Meuse for Dead Man's Hill and Hill 304, which finally fell to the French and restored the situation around Verdun as it was before the Germans began their mighty attack in February, 1916.

In the East

Before turning to the most decisive battle of the year, overshadowing many more bitter struggles, the Italian defeat at Caporetto, the events in Asia once more call for attention.

In December, 1916, the British, this time under the command of General Stanley Maude, were again advancing up the Tigris on Kut-el-Amara. On February 26th the town was captured and General Maude continued on to Bagdad, which was entered by the intrepid British commander on March 11th. At last the British had wiped out the shame of Townshend's surrender at Kut-el-Amara. Bagdad the Magnificent, the city of the fabulous Arabian Nights, ancient with lore and magic, was snatched like a jewel from the crown of the Turkish empire. But there lurked in the city a Captor whom no man can escape, and under its sway fell the brilliant British conqueror. It is declared that General Stanley Maude died of cholera in the ancient city whose sanitation it may well be believed was not of the best under Turkish rule. But rumor has

whispered that he was poisoned through some means by the Germans, who, in command of the Turkish armies, did not lack the means for doing such an unsportsmanlike deed. If they thought it would stop or delay the advance of the British, they were much mistaken, for the British continued their progress for many miles on the way to Mosul, from which place they were to turn west, cross the northern end of the Arabian Desert and storied Euphrates River, and join General Allenby's army coming up through the Holy Land, at Aleppo, for a combined march upon Constantinople.

General Allenby's forces, however, did not enter Palestine until March 26th. Late the year before he had driven the Turks from a second attack on the Suez Canal, cleared them out of the Sinai Peninsula, crossed the frontier and defeated the Turks in a pitched battle at Gaza on the seacoast. Now began one of the most picturesque campaigns of the entire war.

Late in November the British had reached the outskirts of Jerusalem and laid siege to the Holy City. On December 8th, after holding Jerusalem for six hundred and seventy-three years, the Turks surrendered to the British general, and on the 11th General Allenby and his troops entered the city on foot by the Jaffa gate. Indeed, it may be said that this victory crowned the ninth and last Crusade for the Holy shrines of the Christian religion. The Knights of the First Crusade had knocked against the gates of the city with lances and spears just 818 years before General Allenby's troops. What scenes must have

sprung up in the minds of those soldiers from the far-away modern world, which were impressed upon their memory as little children by their parents and Sunday school teachers:—how as the royal city of the ancient Canaanites it had been captured by David; how Solomon built the great Temple there whose glittering dome outshone the sun; how the city was destroyed by Nebuchadnezzar, the wicked Babylonian king, which drove the Jews into exile, and how they came back and rebuilt the Sacred City. All these events and more are out of the Old Testament. But how much more deeply impressed were these soldiers of many western lands across continents and seas, to recall that they trod upon the very ground and their eyes looked upon the very places that were most memorable in Christ's ministry. That within these walls He was tried and sent to death, and afterwards was secretly laid in the tomb in the garden of the rich man, from which He arose from the dead, making good His prophecy, and then ascended into Heaven. With what reverence must those hardy soldiers have moved about amid these scenes of the New Testament. How vividly they must have recalled their childhood when they first learned of the Divine Son who came to do His Father's bidding upon earth, to comfort and heal, to bring love and mercy, and teach good will between men. And perhaps those soldiers who had left home and kin and all that was dear, remembered too that Christ also said He had come with a sword to put down the wicked and mighty who did wrong, and, remembering this, the troops must inwardly have exulted, for the reason

that brought them to Jerusalem was to put down the wicked and mighty, who had done wrong. It must have been a very wonderful experience for the soldiers who stood in Jerusalem on the anniversary of Christ's birth in 1917.

With Jerusalem in his hands General Allenby made it the base of his operations in Palestine to defeat the Turkish army. So over ground sacred in biblical history the campaign was carried on. The British moved north to Jericho and on to Samaria through the Judean hills. The cavalry branch of the army was used freely in this campaign, indeed it was one of the very few times in the whole war when cavalry became effective on a large scale of action. It swept up between the River Jordan and the Mediterranean Sea to Nazareth, where Christ began His ministry, which was captured with 18,000 prisoners, many guns, airplanes and military supplies. The Turks were now between two wings of the British army north and south, and with an Arabian army coming east across the River Jordan to cut off their escape. The German general, Liman von Saunders, who was in command of the Turkish troops, now saw their fate and in a cowardly manner deserted them with his officers, escaping just before the net was drawn tight. On the famous biblical field of Armageddon, which means the place of "the battle of the great day of God," on the tableland of Esdraelon in Galilee and Samaria, the Turks were crushed and the Holy Land forever freed from their bondage.

The British campaign in Palestine began in the spring

of 1917, but I have carried it through to the events of September, 1918, with the final defeat of the Turks. The British army in Mesopotamia, as already recorded, had advanced to Mosul up the Tigris, where it awaited General Allenby's progress through Palestine, when both armies were to meet at Aleppo and advance on Constantinople. Thus the stage was set in the east for the final act which was but one in a series of actions which overwhelmed all the enemy powers with defeat. I have brought you thus far in the east to the end, because it was there far away from the center of the war in Europe that General Allenby won the first decisive victory, several days before the Allies, under General d'Esperey, broke Bulgaria's power, that helped to bring the war to an end.

The Italian Defeat

The most decisive as well as the most disastrous battle of the year was the defeat of the Italians by the Austro-Germans at Caporetto. This defeat was largely due to propaganda by the Germans. The Austrian and Italian lines, which were only a few hundred yards apart, had made it possible for the soldiers during periods of inactivities to become friendly. This friendliness was encouraged by the Austrian and German High Command. The Austrian troops who had been friendly with the Italians were withdrawn and German shock troops took their places. On October 24th the attack began. The Italians in the front line, believing the attackers to be the friendly Austrians they knew, waved them a welcome. The

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THE END OF THE LAST CRUSADE CAME WHEN GENERAL ALLENBY ENTERED JERUSALEM AT THE HEAD OF THE BRITISH ARMY

treacherous Germans replied with rifle and machine-gun fire, killing the Italians in great numbers and breaking through their lines.

The first week of the advance the Italians lost more than 250,000 prisoners and 2,000 guns. The Italian armies on the front from the Carnic Alps to the sea, a distance of seventy miles, were forced to retreat. The retreat became a rout in which soldiers and civilians, stores and materials of all kinds got mixed, and choked up the roads running to the rear. Town after town fell to the enemy. All that the Italians had gained in their two years of difficult fighting was lost in as many weeks. By the 10th of November the Italians had crossed the Piave and, reënforced by British and French troops, fought a hard battle to keep the Germans and Austrians from crossing the river. In this they succeeded and held the line of the Piave safely until the following year when, under General Diaz, the Austrians were crushingly defeated and put out of the war.

America at War

There remains for this chapter a reference to America's relations to the actual fighting that was going on in France. It was many months before America was to take an active and decisive part in the field. Her first contribution to Allied strength was naval, and this we will describe in the naval chapters of this narrative, but it was in June of 1917 that the first American troops under Gen-

eral Pershing arrived in Europe, and on October 27th that the first shot was fired by our troops across the line upon German trenches. Late in the summer Pershing's men were put in the trenches in the Toul sector, south of Verdun, where they learned the method of trench warfare, and it was on this part of the line they first took command of a sector when their training was completed.

Though the Americans did no actual fighting on the land in 1917, they had a still larger task to perform in training and preparation. While cantonments were being built all over the country at home, and the draft was put into operation for the creation of the National Army, and training was begun, over in Europe there was other important work being carried on. Ports of debarkation with docks and wharves and storehouses had to be built. Bases for all sorts of supplies had to be made ready. Lines of railroads to the front and roads for motor transports had to be constructed, and all these took a great number of engineers and men, who in these duties were fighting the enemy just as much as the men who carried rifles and fired the guns. Indeed men of many professions and trades and in unskilled labor combined in a mighty effort to construct and prepare for the training, transportation, health, feeding and comfort of the millions of young men who were being called from their civilian occupation to don the uniform and fight the Germans.

While all this was going on in the summer and autumn of 1917, and the winter of 1916-17, the Germans were also making a mighty effort behind their lines. They

were building and perfecting three lines of defenses for an emergency against any future advances such as the British had made in the Battle of the Somme and which would enable them to retreat safely to the frontier. But this was not their single preparation. They were bringing all their troops from the eastern front, now that they were no longer needed, since Russia had made peace at Brest-Litovsk, and they were training them and creating the "shock battalions" for the great offensive that was to carry the Kaiser into Paris and end the war. So the race was on, between Germany and America, for the final test.

CHAPTER V

THE CAMPAIGNS OF 1918

The German Drive

WITH everything in readiness, the great German offensive, which was to end the war, began on March 21st. Von Hindenburg, who was not in favor of the attack, but believed in was better to hold the Allies from behind the strong fortifications he had built along the whole line from the North Sea to Switzerland, was not in direct command of the German armies. His lieutenant, Ludendorff, who conceived the plan of battle, had won the Kaiser's approval to go ahead with it, and so commanded the operations. He had adopted the "von Hutier" method of attack with shock troops, which had been so successfully employed by General von Hutier in his operations before Riga in northern Russia.

It will be simpler for you to understand the German offensive if you understand at the outset its purpose, and the definite stages through which it progressed. Ludendorff was striking for a decision. His efforts to reach this was to break through the front where the British and French armies joined, rolling the British armies northward through Amiens against the sea and defeat them, and then the French armies eastward against the frontier

and defeat them, too. Thus without opposition he could advance upon Paris and capture it. The battle would be won and Germany victorious in the war.

Now Ludendorff won a great initial victory, destroyed utterly one British army and defeated others. He also defeated one of the French armies, opened a great gap between the French and British forces, and was able to reach a point within twenty-nine miles of Paris,—but he did not win the war. He struck four heavy blows in the nearly four months that it took him to advance to an extreme limit of fifty miles. The first blow of March 21st was on a front of fifty miles between Arras and Laon in the direction of Amiens; the second blow of April 9th was on a narrow front between Meteren and Armentières down the Lys valley towards the Channel Ports; the third blow of May 27th was on a thirty-five mile front from Montdidier to Rheims, to the Marne and on the road to Paris; and the fourth blow on July 15th was on a sixty-mile front from Château-Thierry to the Argonne, to take Rheims and swing westward on both banks of the River Marne on the way to Paris. This was the whole program which nearly brought the war to an end with a German victory.

Let us follow the progress of the first blow. The Germans, you must remember, were far superior in numbers. On the very first day of the attack the weight of these numbers gave them a momentum that nothing could stop. Forty German diivsions fell upon fourteen British divisions, with the concentration against General Gough's Fifth British Army on the southern end of the line. On

the third day General Gough's army was shattered into fragments, but the fragments fought heroically until killed or captured. But on and on came the Germans, through Picardy towards the Somme, adding mile after mile to their advance and taking town after town that the British held. Bapaume, Combles, Péronne, Ham, Noyon, Albert, Chaulnes, Nesle, Roye, Lassigny, Moreuil and Montdidier fell into their hands. The Germans had retaken all the ground they gave up in the great retreat of the year before. As they pushed forward, their front, like an enormous mass of iron, ground its way southward by Amiens in a huge bow, the outer rim of which was but ten miles from the city. Fifty miles from their starting-point and within sight of their great objective, Amiens, the important junction of communications for the British with their bases on the Channel, the Germans were stopped. They almost broke through. But at this point a hastily gathered force of engineers and non-combatant laborers of all descriptions, seizing rifles and machine-guns, were thrown into the breach to hold back the tide until reënforcements could be brought up and sent in. American engineers laying roads dropped their work, and, commanded by General Carey, a British officer, went into the fight to help stop the Germans. After two or three days the French threw in some reserves, the gap was effectively filled, the British and French armies securely linked, and the road to Amiens blocked to the Germans forever.

The German blow had been an immense success which threw a gloom over all the Allied countries. One British

army was utterly destroyed, 150,000 prisoners and 2,000 guns captured. It was a serious situation that confronted the Allied generals and statesmen. They realized at once the fatal mistake that had been made on their side. That was the lack of unity in command of the Allied operations. So the Allied commanders got together in a conference and agreed that Foch, the French general who had held the Germans before Nancy in the first days of the war, whose thrust at La Fère-Champenoise had been the decisive move towards victory in the Battle of the Marne, who on two occasions in Flanders had saved the British, and who in Artois and Champagne had achieved brilliant results, should be generalissimo of all the Allied armies on every front. Joffre had called Foch the "finest strategist in Europe," and in the next few months he was to prove it to all the world.

General Foch was appointed the supreme commander on March 29th, and his first utterance was that "Amiens will not fall." It was the first bright hope that broke through the dark days that hung over England, France and America since the first day of the German drive. And Amiens did not fall!

Another result of this successful drive by the Germans was to hasten the arrival of American troops upon the battlefield. The English Premier, Lloyd George, cabled President Wilson to send 120,000 American troops a month to France. The President replied that if England would loan the ships the troops would be sent. So began the last stage of the great race between Germany and

America. The odds were against America because Germany in the drive just described had won the first lap. The genius of General Foch stood between the Kaiser's army and Amiens. Would it stand between it and Paris on any other front where the Germans with their superb organization and superior numbers choose to attack? Three thousand miles of water in which lurked the enemy's submarines, ready to sink without warning or mercy the troop-laden transports, lay between America and the battlefields. Would the great western Republic get there safely and in time? That was the question all the Allied world was asking. Thank Heaven, it did, but at the expense of tremendous labor. And Heaven is to be thanked, too, that such a soldier with the genius of General Foch stood between the Germans and defeat until the Americans were ready, nearly three months later, to be sent in at the Marne to turn defeat into victory.

We left the Germans at the end of their first blow at the gates of Amiens. The exertion which carried them fifty miles in ten days had worn them out. They were far beyond their supplies, ammunition and guns. In spite of their gains they had been badly used by the terrific fire of the British and French. It was necessary for them to stop, reorganize and replenish their units with food and shells.

In the meantime another German drive was preparing to the north. Blocked on the Somme, Ludendorff sought to break through in Flanders. On April 9th, after an unsuccessful attack against Arras, the forces of Crown Prince

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THE FLEEING GERMANS LEARNED THAT THE AMERICANS WERE NOT TOO PROUD TO FIGHT

Rupprecht smashed through on the front between Armentières and Dixmude Ridge along the Lys valley south of Ypres. The advance was in a westerly direction towards the Channel ports. A corps of Portuguese troops was broken through and the Germans swept forward. All the important ridges that the British had captured at such sacrifice during the summer and autumn of the previous year in the Third Battle of Ypres were taken. Poelcappelle, Passchendaele and Messines passed into the enemy's hands. Yet still further west the Germans pushed right up to the summit of Mt. Kemmel, the key position to Ypres itself. Still they did not stop, but, swaying a little to the south, passed beyond Merville on the road to Hazebrouck. The capture of this place with a further advance westward to the range of hills, Mounts Noir, Rouge, Vidaigne and Scherpenberg beyond Mt. Kemmel, and the British would have to give up Ypres and the road opened to the Channel.

At this point the famous order was issued to the British army in which was said, "With our backs to the wall and believing in the justice of our cause each of us must fight to the end." The British were fighting with their "backs to the wall," and there they stood and stopped the German onslaught. Three hundred and twenty square miles were lost to the enemy, he had captured 20,000 prisoners and 200 guns, but he had not taken Ypres and reached the Channel. So the second blow came to an end.

The advance in Flanders as well as the advance in Picardy had baffled Ludendorff. He had torn great

salients in the Allied lines, but they were unbroken. The Germans were now compelled to stop and take a breath to prepare for another attack. It was more than a month before this took place.

In the meantime the Allies made a few attempts to straighten out the line in front of Montdidier to strengthen their positions. One of these operations was carried out by American troops in what was practically their first advance. They were sent against the town of Cantigny, which was taken with splendid courage and dash. It was a promise of the mettle in the American soldier that later was to win such admiration from the veterans of France and England.

On May 27th Ludendorff let loose his third blow on a forty-mile front, which was in the shape of a bow from Montdidier to Château-Thierry. This blow was followed by a supplementary attack on June 9th, which came down from the river Aisne. Together they were intended as one great drive to the Marne.

The Germans tore through the front between Soissons and Rheims, advanced thirty miles to the Marne and crossed the river at and about Château-Thierry, and stood upon the road to Paris. The French front was also broken to the east of Rheims, where the Germans drove over the strong natural positions on the Chemin des Dames which General Maistre's troops had taken in 1917. Soissons was now again in German hands. The rivers Vesle and Ourcq were behind the Germans' front line and the Marne was crossed. This third blow of Ludendorff's was

as disastrous as the first blow down the Somme valley in Picardy, and the world began to wonder what General Foch was doing to let him come on in this fashion. But the great commander knew what he was about, and, like Joffre at the first Battle of the Marne, was biding his time.

But this second battle of the Marne will be ever memorable in the annals of America's military history. It will ever be gratefully remembered by our Allies as well, for at Château-Thierry the American Marines filled the gap that stopped the German march to Paris. Brought to the front in motor-vehicles, they went into action on June 6th and poured a withering machine-gun fire into the German ranks as they came across the old stone bridge that spanned the Marne in Château-Thierry. They fought with great bravery until the French engineers came and blew up the bridge, killing and drowning a large number of German soldiers who were crowding across on it.

But not only here at Château-Thierry did the Americans fight. At some places the Germans were across the Marne on the road that ran to Paris. General Pershing had sent the Second and Third Divisions to support the French along the Marne, and at Belleau Wood the men of these divisions, made up of regulars and battalions of the Marine Corps, engaged and defeated a determined German attack. The French were very much pleased with the success of the Americans, because Belleau Wood, right on the road to Paris, in the hands of the Germans would have given them a great advantage in holding open

the way to the capital for the next advance. In honor of this great service to their defense the French renamed the wood "Bois de la Brigade de Marine," that is, the "Wood of the Marine Brigade."

Another incident happened in the American fighting along the Marne during this drive. General Omar Bundy who was in command of the Second Division was ordered by the French to retire, but replied that it was unthinkable that the American flag should retreat, as such a thing would be humiliating to his country's honor and that it was his purpose to counter-attack. This plea must have convinced the superior French command that such spirit could not be defeated, and led it to countermand the order with the permission to attack. That it was successful is shown by the fact that the Germans were not able to pass the Americans in the Château-Thierry sector.

The third German blow thus came to an end. The participation of the Americans at Château-Thierry gave evidence that they were in the war at last. The results that attended their first determined fighting must have filled the Germans with concern. Ludendorff must have seen that the race was slipping from him. His intelligence department was obliged to tell him that the troops of Uncle Sam were pouring into the trenches with ever increasing speed and in ever larger numbers. If he was to gain a decision before it was *absolutely* too late, it had to be done before General Pershing's army was ready to strike as a unit. So he made one more gamble and struck the fourth blow.

This blow fell on July 15th on a sixty-mile front from Château-Thierry to the Argonne on the east of Rheims. It had a two-fold purpose. It was to move in two immense waves, one was to break through on the east and west of Rheims, take that city, then spread out into a second wave swinging westward on both banks of the Marne and stand in a position for the final blow upon Paris. It was a gigantic movement conceived on Napoleonic lines, and to make it successful Ludendorff threw in his last reserves. But the blow failed. Between Rheims and the Argonne General Gouraud defeated Ludendorff's left wing; between Rheims and Château-Thierry the Germans gained a little ground at great cost as General Mangin's troops slowed them down. By July 18th Ludendorff had, as they say, shot his bolt. All along the front the Germans were brought to a standstill. The mighty military power of the Kaiser was dazed and unbalanced. Before Ludendorff could think, his armies were struck a blow from which they never recovered.

You will remember a little while back when the Germans made their thirty-five-mile drive towards the Marne at Château-Thierry, all the Allied world began to question what General Foch was doing to stop them on the way to Paris. He was now to answer that question, and to answer it in a fashion that set those same questioners wild with delight.

The Germans had become drunk with their successes. They thought that General Foch had no reserves left after throwing in reënforcements to stop the drives in Picardy,

in Flanders and down the Oise valley. The fact that Americans had been thrown in around Château-Thierry proved that General Foch was desperate and did not know where to look for reënforcements, if he was compelled to take these partially trained troops to help hold the Germans back.

But General Foch had not used anywhere near the number of American troops that General Pershing had placed at his command. He held these in reserve for a definite purpose. And he added to them British troops which he drew from the Flanders and Picardy fronts, making those fronts dangerously thin. If the Germans had only known this! It was a daring move, only such a move as a soldier of supreme genius would make. And of General Foch's genius there was no doubt after July 18, 1918. He had created an army where none had existed, and was to use it in a way that sent a thrill of enthusiasm through all the Allied countries—and—which sent a wave of terror through Ludendorff, his imperial master the Kaiser and all his generals.

Well, we know that Foch had a new army, but what were the circumstance which made him use it with such confidence of success. The circumstance was this. Ludendorff, drunk with his successes and believing that Foch had no reserves, had left one of his flanks exposed. The Germans were in a deep salient whose base ran from the river Aisne just west of Soissons to Rheims, a distance of thirty miles. Its top or point was at Château-Thierry over thirty miles deep and resting on the river Marne. On the west-

ern side the entire flank was exposed, and on July 18th Foch threw in his reserves from the Aisne to the Marne, and the salient caved in. Day after day the French, British and Americans advanced. When the attack from the western flank got well started Foch attacked on the eastern side from Rheims to Dormans. The Germans were now in a bad hole and for days it was a question whether they could pull the larger part of their armies out and escape capture. They had to abandon great stores of material and ammunition on the retreat, and they lost heavily in killed and captured as the Allies drove them across the Ourcq and Vesle rivers and finally beyond the Aisne.

The German drive was now at an end. The offensive had passed from Ludendorff to Foch. Another great battle was soon to begin, a battle for a decision, fought with different methods than the sledge-hammer blows which Ludendorff had swung against the Allies four times in nearly four months, methods which were going to bring the decision aimed at, and end the war. But before we follow Foch's battles, let us turn to the other fronts in Italy, in the Balkans, and in western Asia, and see how the enemy crumbled before the Allies on the far-distant wings of the gigantic battle that Foch carried in his head.

Victory in the Balkans

The Balkan front had been quiet for two years. Our last peep into these regions saw the Serbs back in Monastir

at the bend of the Cerna river. The great Army of the Orient which had been gathered at Salonica at the head of the Gulf of Salonica in Greek Macedonia, did not dare to move on any large scale towards the Bulgarian border owing to the danger of King Constantine attacking it in the rear. But the patience of the Allies became worn out by the treachery of this pro-German king, and forced his abdication. Free of Constantine, and with his second son, Alexander, on the throne, there was nothing to fear. Alexander's sympathies were with the Allies and he immediately called the popular Venizelos to form a cabinet and carry on war against Bulgaria.

General Sarrail had been replaced by General d'Esperey as commander of the army at Salonica.

On September 14th General d'Esperey attacked the Bulgarians from Monastir to the Bulgarian border. On the extreme left of the line were the Italians, one army moving north along the Albanian frontier, and another coming east through Albania. Next were the Serbs and French who advanced upon Uskub. The center was held by the Serbians who were to take Prilip. On the right were the British and Greek who advanced up the Vardar Valley towards Lake Doiran near the Bulgarian frontier. Opposed to the Allies were two Bulgarian armies, one in the west and another in the east. It was the purpose of General d'Esperey to divide these armies and defeat them. Bulgaria had to meet this attack all by herself, as both her stronger allies, Germany and Austria, were busily engaged in France and Italy.

General d'Esperey's forces were successful from the start. The Bulgarian army in the west was defeated and attempted to escape and join with the Bulgarians in the east. But the British and Greeks had made a rapid advance up the Vardar Valley and were soon across the Bulgarian frontier and in possession of Strumnitza. This was on September 26th. By the 30th, Uskub had fallen, and the Bulgarians sued for peace.

The first link in the Teutonic alliance was broken. Turkey was separated from Germany, and Austria open to invasion. The Allies swept through Albania, northern Serbia and Montenegro, driving out the Austrians and Germans. Nish was retaken and a portion of the Berlin-to-Bagdad railroad was once more in Allied hands. The Serbians crossed the Danube and stood upon Austrian soil. This invasion of Austria by the Serbs was the last act that determined Austria to follow Bulgaria's example and sue for peace. For the earlier acts we shall now have to turn to the Italian front and describe the defeat that had overtaken the Austrians at the hands of General Diaz.

The Victory in Italy

After his troops had been stopped in Flanders, Ludendorff sought to draw attention from the western front awhile by ordering the Austrian armies to attack along the Piave River. What the Austrians had attempted to do in bringing disaster to the Isonzo armies of Italy in 1916, they tried now to do to the Italian armies in the Trentino. General Diaz had reorganized the Italians after

the terrible disaster at Caporetto, and with French and British divisions were quite able to deal with the Austrian offensive. The Austrians crossed the Piave at a number of places, but within a week General Diaz drove them back with tremendous losses. So the lines of the opposing forces stood until late in October.

As General Foch had sent the Army of the Orient against the Bulgarians as a part of his final campaign against the enemy alliance, so now he ordered the Italians to move against the Austrians on the whole length of the Piave from the Adriatic Sea to the mountains. The Allied Commander-in-Chief chose well the time of attack. There were two million Austrian troops along the Piave, and they had to be supplied with food and munitions from across the mountains in the north. The winter comes early in the mountains making it extremely difficult for transportation.

The Italian attack opened with tremendous fury and advanced towards the northeast where the troops of General Diaz broke through at Vittorio and Langarone, separating the Austrian armies along the river from those in the mountains. The Italians had taken 400,000 prisoners, 7,000 guns, and enormous quantities of stores and ammunition. On October 29th, the Austrians offered to surrender, but General Diaz demanding more proof than an officer with a white flag, refused to recognize the appeal. But the following day a delegation of Austrians crossed the Italian front at Rovereto and met General Diaz. An armistice was granted the Austrians, who sur-

rendered unconditionally, and Austria was out of the war.

It was a glorious day for Italy. The redemption of the Italian provinces of Trent and the Istrian Peninsula was complete after more than half a century of hope and aspiration. The second of Germany's Allies had deserted her because it was necessary. Bulgaria and Austria were broken and helpless and there was nothing else for them to do but yield to the conquerer. Only Turkey remained, between whom and Germany were two utterly crushed partners. This made her helpless too, and if we turn to the east for a moment we will see that just as the Italians were crushing the Austrians on the Piave, the Turks were preparing to give up the forlorn struggle in Asia.

Unlike the circumstances which forced Bulgaria and Austria to surrender, it was a threat more than anything else which brought the Turks to terms. They did not have to fight another battle to know they were defeated. Driven out of Palestine and Mesopotamia the Turkish armies were fleeing back to Constantinople in a wild and chaotic state. Even in the north, in the Caucasus, where the Russian advance had long ago crumbled and the Turks had retaken much ground without opposition, the Moslem troops were demoralized.

The surrender of Bulgaria had opened a way for a European attack upon Constantinople, and already General d'Esperey's Army of the Orient was preparing to advance upon the city.

The British army in Mesopotamia under General Marshall we last met with at Mosul on the Tigris, miles and

miles beyond Bagdad, waiting for General Allenby to come up through Palestine. After the defeat of the Turks on the field of Armageddon towards the end of September, General Allenby advanced and reached Damascus in Syria by October first. Now both the British generals started on the march to Aleppo where they were to join forces and move northwestward through Asia Minor upon Constantinople.

When the Turks saw the Allies creeping and closing in upon their capital from the east and the west they gave up the fight. On October 12th the Turks sent General Townshend, the British general whom they had captured at Kut-el-Amara, to the Admiral in command of the British Mediteranean fleet, with an offer to surrender. The terms were arranged and on October 31st an armistice was signed and Turkey was out of the war.

Foch's Battles of "Two Blows and a Kick" which Brought Victory

We left the western front just as Foch in his counter-offensive of July 18th had driven the Germans out of the Marne salient back to the Aisne river. Now was to begin the greatest battle in all history, the battle which I have called "Two Blows and a Kick." I will tell you why I have given it this name.

It is said that some one asked General Foch, right after the Second Battle of the Marne, how he was going to whip the Germans. The great soldier could only express himself in one way, in giving an answer. The reason was, the

thing was too immense to be put in words to be understood. So General Foch answered the question with gestures. He doubled his fist and swung his right hand to the left, and then his left hand to the right, and then raised his right foot in a sharp, vicious kick.

What he meant was that he would hit the Germans a blow on the right, then a blow on the left, then a kick in the center which would send them out of France. And this is exactly what he did. Only just as he raised his toe for the final kick, the Germans, knowing what was to come, fell down on their knees and begged for mercy. And the great soldier granted them mercy, not because they did not deserve the punishment he had the power to give them, but because he did not wish for the sake of glory, not even for the sake of the everlasting renown that would have been his, in winning the most tremendous battle of all history with the destruction and capture of millions of men, to sacrifice needlessly the lives of his own soldiers. He was satisfied merely to take the victory and win the war for the Allies. And he knew that Germany was as completely crushed when her armies surrendered, still organized and well-equipped, as she would be if he had killed half of them and captured the rest. In fact it was a great humiliation for the proud and arrogant soldiers of the Kaiser, a far more bitter disgrace for the Kaiser himself and his vain and brutal generals, to surrender. General Foch's victory was no less glorious and immortal since he crowned it with a humane desire. Indeed, it was greater because he brought a war that was filled with horror and

unspeakable suffering to an end with the healing thoughts of mercy.

To fully understand Foch's battles of blows and a kick it is necessary to compare his methods with those of his opponent Ludendorff. Ludendorff's purpose was to strike with gigantic sledge-hammer blows, with the hope that one of them would smash completely through the Allied lines and destroy armies in one drive. This method was typical of the German mind, which is mechanical. Often approaching near to success, the method never quite succeeded, because there were always fatal weaknesses which broke down the organization of the drive. Human endurance can only reach to a certain pitch and then it collapses. And the rigid machinery of Germany's military organization had, after all, to depend upon the human element. It broke when the human element became exhausted.

The fatal weaknesses of the great German drives of Ludendorff which almost won the war but didn't, and ended in complete disaster, was in the human element. A machine is no good without fuel. Let us say the German army was like an automobile that has been supplied with gasoline to run a hundred miles. At the end of a hundred miles it stops because the gasoline has given out. It is on a lonely country road where no gasoline can be obtained. But a hundred miles back from where it started is a horse-driven wagonload which is on the way with another supply. The automobile simply has to wait until the wagon reaches it. Then it can go on. But in the

meantime all sorts of things might happen, which even with the gasoline might prevent the automobile from continuing its journey. Its failure was thus due to the cause of fuel.

Ludendorff's military machine in the offensive of 1918 outran its fuel. While it waited the Allies prepared to deal with it, that is, to destroy it.

Foch's methods were altogether different. His final object was the same as Ludendorff's, but he fought a long series of sharp engagements, in none of which he exhausted his fuel, and which were but the gathering of the storm that was to break with a final and decisive blow. There was no pause between these engagements, so the enemy never had any rest, and was thus unable to pull himself together for a strike-back. These battles were for the security of position, so when the time for the final blow came there would be no weak spot, no exposed flanks, such as Ludendorff created for himself in the Marne salient, for the enemy to attack. First on one wing, and then on the other, Foch struck, pushing back the Germans all during August, September and October of 1918, bottling Ludendorff's armies up for the final and decisive blow. That blow the Germans knew would destroy and capture *all* their armies, and bring about the greatest military disaster in history, a Sedan fifty or a hundred times multiplied, and so Ludendorff had nothing else to do but surrender.

Now let us sketch an outline, or rather indicate the stages of Foch's battles and then describe how they were

carried out by the generals and armies under his command.

The whole series of engagements which opened Foch's campaign on August 8th are so closely interwoven that it is difficult to follow them as separate developments such as was found to be true of Ludendorff's four blows. Foch had a purpose that was very evident to all, when he began his attacks on August 8th. It was that the Germans should not be allowed to reach the Hindenburg Line, from which they started the great offensive of March 21st, in such a condition as to be able to stand and defend it. After Ludendorff's defeat in the Marne salient, the German army turned from his policy of offense to von Hindenburg's policy of defense along the whole length of the Hindenburg Line. Foch knew this, and he knew, the Hindenburg Line being well-nigh impregnable, that if a strong group of German armies reached it unbeaten it would be beyond the task o fthe Allies to break the Line before the winter set in and the campaign came to an end. The Germans on the other hand knew that if they could reach the Hindenburg Line without serious defeats or losses before winter, they could hold it, repair their armies during the winter and look forward with some measure of hope to the campaign of 1919.

The summer was fast slipping away and with the experience of the previous two autumns approaching early with winter on their heels, to put an end to extensive operations, Foch had to act quickly and steadily to gain his end. And this end was nothing less than beating the Germans

thoroughly before they could reach the Hindenburg Line, take it along its entire length, and so end the war.

Now the Hindenburg Line was not, as you may suppose, a single line of strongly fortified trench systems. There were more than twenty of these single lines, themselves protected by trench systems fortified down to the last scientific detail of modern war, which ran across France and Flanders from Verdun to Arras. On some parts of the front the Allies were behind the Hindenburg Line but as long as the Germans held it at the most vital points the Allies could not take advantage of their position. At the north in front of Arras, in the east in front of Verdun, and in the center in front of Cambrai, the Line was most strongly protected, and it was at these points that the beaten Germans fought with such desperation during the latter part of September and up to the middle of October. But Foch had beaten them so badly before they reached the Hindenburg Line, that in spite of their desperate efforts the Germans had to yield.

Now there were six concerted movements,—they can't be called offensives such as Ludendorff made in his March-to-July drive,—because they were linked up with a continuous advance along the entire Allied front—which pointed to clearly defined objectives. These five movements were not independent operations, but the strokes made possible by a continuous number of operations. The simplest way to understand the great plan of General Foch's strategy is to take a clock that strikes on the quarter hour. Twelve o'clock we will say represents the defeat

of the Germans in the Marne salient. The forces are balanced. At a minute past is Foch's attack of August 8th from Amiens to Montdidier, and the minutes to quarter-past represent various attacks and advances. At quarter-past the hour the clock strikes once, and that represents the attack of August 23d when the British advanced between Arras and the Somme in the north, penetrating the German right wing. Now the minutes are rolling to the half hour, representing a continued attack all along the line. The clock strikes a second time for the half hour, and this represents the blow of September 18th for Cambrai in the center. Now the minutes begin to mount up the other side of the clock, and not only minutes but seconds now represent the rapidly increasing attacks Foch is making all along the line. Between half-past and a quarter of the hour, the Commander-in-Chief has made two heavy strokes; on September 26th, he sends the Americans under General Pershing forward from Rheims to Verdun into the Argonne to break the Hindenburg Line in the east. Two days later, on September 28th, the Anglo-Belgian armies are ordered to advance from Ypres to the North Sea. Then on the stroke of the three-quarter hour, while all the armies are advancing on the north and east from Cambrai, the British and Americans attack in the center between Cambrai and St. Quentin, the strongest portion of the entire German line. This is the hour stroke. The Hindenburg Line is captured from end to end. Pershing is beyond it and through the Argonne on the right wing, on the way to Sedan, shutting off the German

line of retreat to the frontier from Maubeuge, through Mézières and Sedan to Metz. The Anglo-Belgian armies, which advanced on September 28th from Ypres to the North Sea, broke through on the left wing, shutting off the only other line of German retreat to the frontier from Lille through Namur and Liège. These were the only two avenues of escape the Germans had with perfect railway communications. Between these lines of retreat was the Forest of the Ardennes, a wide stretch of mountainous country through which it was impossible for the large masses of German troops to pass.

Another fact should be considered in connection with the Ardennes and the rôle that was given the American troops to take in this great battle. Behind the Hindenburg Line in the north through Belgium the Germans had three lines of defenses to the river Meuse which runs down the eastern corner of Belgium by Liège, from which place it turns southwest to Namur, then south to Sedan, and on southeast to Verdun. The Meuse was the last defensive line of the Germans in Belgium and France. Two other lines to the west came down through Belgium and all three lines converged into one to the north of Verdun before the Maubeuge-Sedan-Metz railroad, and protected Metz. This line was the famous Kriemhilde Stellung on the northern edge of the Argonne and before Grand Pré. On it the Germans made their heaviest concentration of troops because it was through here lay the road to the Rhine and an invasion of Germany and the investment of Metz. Once this line was broken the Germans would be crowded

against the wall of the Ardennes Forest and cut off from escape.

The tremendous task which General Foch called upon the Americans to accomplish was to push through the Forest of the Argonne, a gigantic task, then break through the Kriemhilde Stellung, capture Grand Pré, and then advance upon and take Sedan. The entire success of Foch's campaign depended upon the Americans accomplishing this task. To the glory of the American officers and troops be it said, they fulfilled what was expected of them to the utmost. It was a particular honor and trust for which the Americans were chosen, and they proved that neither was misplaced by General Foch. The Battle of the Argonne and the breaking of the Kriemhilde Stellung, or Kriemhilde Position, was the decisive advance which won Foch's great battle and brought victory to the Allies, just as surely as his own attack at La Fère-Champenoise was the decisive stroke which won the First Battle of the Marne.

Let us go back to August 8th, when the British Fourth Army under General Rawlinson attacked on a twenty-five-mile front from Amiens to Montdidier. The success of this advance was immediate and large. The British went forward eleven miles, taking Montdidier, and made a haul of 17,000 prisoners and 200 guns. The next two weeks the attack spread to the north and east of Amiens so that the whole front from Arras to Soissons was pushing forward. In the north the line had reached Beaumont-Hamel and in the east Lassigny. The Allies had now sliced off the top of the German salient in Picardy.

On August 23d the British began a big attack on a thirty-mile front from the Somme below Albert to Arras, capturing Bray, Thiepval and a number of strong positions all the way to the river Scharpe, with thousands of prisoners. The following day the French and Americans moved forward on the front between Soissons and Rheims towards the river Aisne. On the 26th the British were continuing astride the Scarpe taking many towns and striking at the Hindenburg Line between Arras and Lens. Further to the south the French on the 27th and 28th had taken Roye and were working towards Ham and Noyon, advancing towards the Ailette river to get around the western edge of the Forest of St. Gobain.

These constant attacks on the German line forced a retreat on August 31st in Flanders south of Ypres when Mt. Kemmel was given up. On September 2d, the retreat was extended on a fifty-mile front from Ypres to Péronne, and again on September 5th the retreat continued on a wide front of 150 miles from Rheims to the sea. While this latter retreat was in progress the Americans attacked west of Rheims and kept the Germans on the move, driving them from the Vesle at Fismes to and across the Aisne.

On September 12th the French and Americans attacked on both sides of the St. Mihiel salient, preparatory to the first independent offensive of the Americans in France. This took place the next day when General Pershing's First American Army wiped out the St. Mihiel salient in one of the most brilliant attacks of the war. Though this was not a major operation it had an impor-

tance of major operations. The Germans had held the St. Mihiel salient ever since the first months of the war and one or two bloody attempts by the French had failed to drive them out. The Americans did their job so swiftly and cleanly that it won the admiration of the Allied chiefs and filled the people at home with pride. In a little more than a day 180 square miles of territory were recovered for France, besides the capture of 20,000 prisoners and 200 guns, and immense stores of supplies and ammunition.

The wiping out of the St. Mihiel salient brought the Americans near the French border opposite Metz, the outer forts of which soon began to taste the effect of shells from the guns of the American artillery. But more than that, it brought the Americans face to face with the hardest test of their experience in the war. All along the battle-front from Flanders to Verdun American troops were in battle as were the British and French, and much praise they received from the British and French generals for their achievements. But here before the Argonne, a furnace of German steel, the Americans were to win undying glory for valor and endurance as an independent army. All Americans should be justly proud of what their troops accomplished during the two weeks it took to clear the Argonne, foot by foot almost, of the determined Germans. They seemed fully to realize how much depended on breaking through here, for not only was General Gouraud advancing northward from the east of Rheims to join in carrying the line forward toward Mézières and Sedan, but all along the front to the North Sea the development

of Foch's campaign depended upon the success of the Americans. With General Gouraud was a division of colored troops who fought with gallantry, one of its regiments being decorated. In the Argonne, too, were colored troops of whom America has just reason to be proud. There were no better troops in Europe, and when the colored officer was given an opportunity, he proved his talents and efficiency.

Though it was on October 10th that the Americans came out on the northern edge of the Argonne and stood to attack Grand Pré, two days earlier, confident of General Pershing's ultimate success, Foch ordered an attack between Cambrai and St. Quentin, the strongest link in the Hindenburg Line in the north. This blow came as the cumulation of attacks that began on September 18th against the Hindenburg Line north of St. Quentin, during which the Americans under General Rawlinson fought so gallantly at Guillemont Farm. It was followed by the Anglo-Belgian offensive of September 28th, which reached the Roulers-Menin Road. On October 3d the Germans evacuated Lens and Armentières, and on the 9th Cambrai was taken. The French south of Laon had crossed the Ailette and forced the Germans to retreat from the Chemin des Dames. On the 14th of October the Allies on a front from the Lys river south of Ypres northward, advanced towards Ghent and Courtrai. The same day the Germans began another wide retreat, giving up Laon, the last cornerstone but one of their defensive system in France, La Fère and many other strongholds. Three days later Lille

was captured by the British. The two wings of Foch's front were now closing in on the Germans and threatening both lines of their retreat. On October 7th President Wilson had received from Prince Max, the imperial German chancellor, proposals for an armistice, which were promptly rejected, with the suggestion, however, that the proper person to receive such proposals was General Foch.

All along the line the Allies were moving forward rapidly on four fronts. On November 7th the Germans sent to Foch for armistice terms and he received a German delegation the next day at Senlis—a ruined village in the Forest of Compiègne. Still the Allies swept on and when at eleven o'clock on the morning of November 11th, the armistice was signed, the Canadians had entered Mons, the British had taken Valenciennes and Maubeuge, and the American troops had captured and raised the American flag over Sedan.

PART IV

THE NAVIES IN ACTION

CHAPTER I

THE NAVIES IN 1914

THE naval history of the war is far less important form the point of view of action than in the influence of sea power. The word sea power means something that cannot be grasped very easily. When I tell you that it was sea power that won the war, you will most likely be surprised, yet without it, the Allied nations would not have won. If Germany and her associates had driven every one of the Allied soldiers out of Europe and Asia, it would have given her a great military victory; but yet with sea power on the side of the defeated nations, she would not have won the war. This may be very hard to understand; but it is, nevertheless, true. The nations of the world live not by themselves, but through their intercourse with one another; and the pathway of this intercourse is over the seas. Whoever commands the seas, commands victory; and sea power, a great silent weight, was on the side of the Allies.

The great British navy was the cornerstone of this power. Combined with the French navy during the first year or two of the war, they were immensely superior to the navies of Germany, Austria, and Turkey. When Italy came into the war and then America, the weight and

power of this combination greatly increased. There was very little sea fighting on a large scale and of a decisive nature. There was only one major naval battle, and that, perhaps the greatest one in history, was the Battle of Jutland, but there was going on all the time a marvelous activity, crowded with innumerable incidents difficult to imagine. In such ways it was that the sea power of the Allies was exercised; but it will be a long time before the full history of this silent but hidden work of the navies can be written. Day after day, night after night through the warmth and cold of the seasons of the year, the watchful navies were on duty. Upon them, as was said, depended the intercourse of the nations associated in the war. This intercourse was more vitally necessary in war times than in peace. More necessary because there was never so much freight to be transported to the various war fronts as well as millions upon millions of troops.

From the very beginning of the war, the proud German navy, very strong in itself, was obliged to keep under cover of its own coasts. For a few months, a number of cruisers and raiders, that is, ships that destroy commerce, were at large; but they were run down, sunk, or captured. That is why in the beginning of 1915, Germany, being perfectly helpless with her big ships on the sea, developed her submarines and began the undersea warfare. She did it in such a manner as to disregard all the international rules of naval warfare. Thus a new element of danger, which the Allies had not reckoned with, came into existence. They were unprepared to meet it, and great losses

were suffered by the merchant marine of all the nations. Another element of danger which the Germans developed was the mine field which she not only laid along her own coast for protection, but strewed about the seas wherever she thought they could damage shipping and the warships of the Allies. Some of these mines were stationary and some floating, and either kind was very dangerous because it was never known exactly where the mines were.

Now let us see what it was the navies had to do in their silent work. All the big warships such as the dreadnoughts, the battleships and the cruisers of various classes were divided into squadrons and stationed at certain bases where they were always ready to dash forth and fight. These squadrons accompanied by destroyers and torpedo boats would run out to sea every once and a while, with the hope of running across the enemy. This was particularly true of the British Grand Fleet in the North Sea whose base was in Scapa Flow in the north of Scotland. Its first and only duty was to encounter and destroy the German High Seas Fleet, if it ever came out of the Baltic. It did come out once, as we shall see, and fought the greatest sea battle ever fought. Other squadrons of the French, Italian and American navies, were stationed at other bases off the coast of Ireland, along the French coast, and in the Mediteranean and Adriatic Seas. Perhaps next to the Jutland fight, the greatest action of the war was the combined attack of British and French warships upon the Turkish forts at the Dardanelles.

But mostly these great squadrons were silent and

watchful. There were, however, a number of large warships that were used for convoying and these went to all parts of the world.

There was scarcely any coastline on either side of the Atlantic where England did not have some of her warships. The French navy guarded the Mediterranean Sea, while the Japanese navy guarded the Pacific Ocean in the far east. But the small craft,—the destroyers, the torpedo boats, the patrol boats, mine layers, converted cruisers, auxiliaries, submarines, trawlers, mine sweepers, light armored cruisers, and motor boats,—these were the boats that toiled silently in the seas through all weathers doing dangerous and heroic work. Their story can only be guessed at, never fully told, so we must leave them until, little by little, time yields up their chronicles from the official records of the various nations. Our present purpose is to follow the more conspicuous events at sea from the beginning of the war to the end of 1914. There was much activity during these few months, because a number of German ships were still at large all over the world, in the Atlantic, in the Mediteranean, in the Pacific, and their deeds make an interesting story.

During these months, only three naval engagements were fought, the action in Helgoland Bight, the battle off Coronel in the Pacific off the coast of South America, and the Battle of Falkland Islands in the Atlantic off the eastern coast of South America. Before describing these, there are the exploits of the German cruisers and raiders

to consider, which make one of the most romantic pages in the naval story of the war.

The most notable is the case of the *Goeben* and *Breslau,* two German cruisers in the Mediterranean which, at the outbreak of hostilities, managed to elude the British and French warships by a very clever scheme. These ships had bombarded Bona and Philippeville on the Algerian coast, after which they flew to Messina, an Italian port. This was a neutral port, and the German ships had to leave within twenty-four hours. They seemed doomed to be captured by the British and French warships which waited for them outside. The British were certain that the German ships would make a dash for the Adriatic Sea to reach the Austrian naval base at Pola; and so they waited in the Strait of Otranto for the enemy instead of in the Strait of Messina, through which the two German ships passed to the east on their way to the Dardanelles. With flags flying and music playing, the ships left Messina and turned eastward. Shortly after, an English cruiser, the *Gloucester,* discovered the German ships moving eastward and attempted to signal the British fleet that the Germans were slipping away. The Germans interfered with the wireless messages from the *Gloucester,* which entirely threw the British fleet off its guard, and safely got away. When the British finally realized what had happened, they made for the Dardanelles, but the *Goeben* and *Breslau* were already up the Straits and at Constantinople, where they were sold with all their crews to the Turkish government. If the British and French had followed them

into the Dardanelles, as they had just as much right to do as the German ships, they would have been destroyed and perhaps Turkey kept out of the war. The episode was altogether an unpleasant one for the British Navy.

Other incidents which led to naval activity on an interesting scale were the attempts that both British and Germans made, the British wholly and immediately successful, and the Germans only temporarily so, to cut each other's cables. The day after England declared war, she sent the *Drake* to cut the German cables off the Azores and so severed communication between the German ships at sea and their Admiralty at home. In the Pacific, the *Nürnburg* cut the British cable at Fanning Island, situated about 400 miles south of Hawaii. This attempt was successful.

An attempt which did not succeed but which resulted in one of the most romantic episodes of the war was that of the *Emden,* commanded by the valiant Captain Muller, which tried to capture the cable and wireless station in Keeling, Cocos Island, in the far east. The *Emden* did not succeed as the wireless operator at the station got in touch with British men-of-war, who promptly came to the rescue. The *Emden* had had an exciting career ever since the beginning of the war, all up and down the Pacific from the China coast to the Indian Ocean, destroying British merchantmen and bombarding coast towns. The navies of England, Russia, and Japan had hunted for her; and yet she had always, by a device of her commander in altering and painting the funnels of the ship, managed to

escape her pursuers. Her own career came to an end when she attempted to destroy the wireless station at Keeling, Cocos Island. Forty-seven officers and men of the ship had landed to destroy the station, while the *Emden* stood at the harbor entrance to watch against a surprise attack. Here an Australian cruiser, the *Sydney,* found and destroyed her. The men who had gone ashore later seized a schooner and sailed for the Arabian coast near the Red Sea where they landed, and made their way to Turkey and so back to Germany.

The first naval engagement of the war took place in Helgoland Bight on August 28th, when some German light cruisers were reported coming out into the North Sea. Three British submarines were sent to decoy the Germans towards advanced units of a fleet under the command of Vice Admiral Beatty, which was to engage them. The decoy worked perfectly, as several German destroyers and light cruisers chased the submarines. A fight took place between the British cruisers *Arethusa* and *Fearless,* and a number of destroyers, and four German cruisers, the *Ariadne, Strasburg, Köln* and *Mainz,* and with German destroyers. To the northwest of this combat Vice Admiral Beatty with his flagship, the battle cruiser *Lion,* and the *Queen Mary,* and the light cruisers, *Falmouth* and *Nottingham,* were in reserve. The British were hard pressed, being attacked by three German submarines. Vice Admiral Beatty brought his ships into action and turned the scales against the Germans. The British light cruiser, *Arethusa,* was badly damaged and had to be towed

back to port, while several of the destroyers were hard hit. The Germans lost three light cruisers, the *Köln, Mainz* and *Ariadne* and one destroyer, *V-187,* which were sunk. Several of the other German cruisers and destroyers were badly damaged and limped back to port in a sinking condition.

When the war began there was a German squadron in the Pacific under the command of Admiral von Spee. This squadron consisted of the armored cruisers, *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau,* and the light cruisers, *Nürnburg* and *Leipzig.* The *Nürnburg,* as you know, had cut the British cables at Fanning Island. Later this squadron was joined by the light cruiser *Dresden* which was cruising in the south Atlantic waters. A British squadron, under command of Admiral Sir Christopher Craddock, composed of the cruisers *Good Hope* and *Monmouth,* and the light cruiser *Glasgow* and transport *Otranto,* was cruising in the south Atlantic off the coast of Brazil. Admiral Craddock took his ships around the Horn in search of the German squadron and met it off Coronel on the afternoon of the first of November. In weight of tonnage and range of guns, the German fleet was superior to the British. About six o'clock in the evening of the first of November, the battle opened in a heavy sea and a gale of wind at a range of about fifteen thousand yards. Another British ship, the *Canopus,* 250 miles to the south was making a vain effort to reach the scene of action. This ship would have made a valuable addition to Admiral Craddock's fleet, but he opened fire upon the enemy without waiting

for the *Canopus* to strengthen his forces. The British fleet was defeated. Two of the British ships were sunk, the *Good Hope* on which the Admiral lost his life, and the *Monmouth.* The *Glasgow* escaped. The Germans came through unscratched, two of their crew being wounded.

This defeat filled England with indignation, for, as you may suppose, Germany made the most of this the first naval battle of the war. Silently and secretly the British admiralty prepared to avenge the defeat of Admiral Craddock. Within ten days a powerful British squadron under Vice Admiral Sturdee was nearing the Falkland Islands, a wireless and coaling station off the southeastern coast of South America. Admiral von Spee after defeating the British rounded Cape Horn and came up the south Atlantic with the intention of taking this British station at the Falkland Islands. He was unaware of the presence of the British fleet, and much elated by his success in the Pacific, carelessly ran into the lion's mouth. Admiral Sturdee had under his command two battle cruisers, the *Invincible* and *Inflexible,* three armored cruisers, *Carnavon, Cornwall,* and *Kent;* two scout cruisers, *Bristol* and *Glasgow,* and the *Canopus,* the battleship which had failed to reach Admiral Craddock in the battle off Coronel. In weight, speed, and gun range, this fleet was far superior to the German squadron which was the same that fought Admiral Craddock.

On the morning of December 8th, the British Fleet, which was inside of Franklin Harbor, sighted the Germans but were themselves hidden. Soon, however, the Germans

discovered the British and tried to get away. About ten o'clock the British gave chase and caught up with the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau.* About noon, the battle opened. By nine o'clock, all the German ships but the *Dresden* had been sunk. The *Dresden* escaped and after a three months' career of commerce destroying, was hunted down by the *Carnavon* and *Glasgow* in March, near the Island of Juan de Fernandez, and destroyed. The British lost none of their ships, but had nine of their crew killed. With this action, all of the German warships on the high seas were swept away.

CHAPTER II

THE NAVIES IN 1915

THOUGH the sea from the beginning of the war until the end of 1914 was not as crowded with events as the land, there was something constantly doing, and the world was full of expectation that a naval battle of the first magnitude would take place. In this latter, the world was doomed to be disappointed. Nevertheless, the sea was crowded with incidents full of interest and surprises. Hereafter, the interest in sea fighting was steadily to diminish until the battle at Jutland was to astonish the world by its immense proportions. Until the submarine warfare developed, the world was hardly to realize that there was any fighting at sea at all. The submarine was to begin a tale of horror of which the world knew the details to the last word, but there was another side to the submarine warfare of which the world knew next to nothing, and that was full of romance and heroism. Little has been told of this romance except for the mere fact that the British submarines had entered the Baltic Sea or the Dardanelles. The Baltic and the Dardanelles bring up tragic and pathetic memories of Allied efforts, but there was a brighter side to that page, and that

was the achievements of the British submarine commanders. That page we will leave until a little later.

In the meantime, two events of note took place on the seas in 1915. In only one of these, however, were the warships fighting each other and this engagement, the Dogger Bank encounter, is notable for the fact that ships with big guns were in action for the first time. The other event was the contest between sea and land forces before the Dardanelles when the great Anglo-French fleet tried to reduce the fortifications on both sides of the Straits and thus open a way to an attack on Constantinople. We will deal with the fight in the North Sea first which took place on January 24, 1915.

The Germans on this date attempted a second raid on the seacoast towns of England. They sent a squadron of battle cruisers to carry out this dastardly work. It happened that at daybreak on that date, Vice Admiral Beatty with five battle cruisers was out patrolling the North Sea and encountered the Germans. Beatty's ships were the *Lion, Princess Royal, Tiger, New Zealand,* and *Indomitable,* accompanied by four light cruisers, while a cruiser flotilla and destroyers were flung out in advance of his main fleet scouting and screening his forces. It was this fleet that discovered the Germans.

The German Fleet under Admiral von Hipper consisted of the battle cruisers, *Seydlitz, Derfflinger,* and *Moltke,* with the armored cruiser *Blücher.* In addition, these capital ships were accompanied by a fleet of light cruisers and destroyers. The destroyers on neither side

got into the thick of the fight. It was a running fight, because immediately the Germans found they were discovered, they turned tail and made for home. Shots were fired at a range of 20,000 yards and clean hits made at 18,000 yards. The *Blücher,* the slowest of the German ships, soon fell astern of her comrades, and passing her, the slower British ships *New Zealand* and *Indomitable* pounded heavy broadsides into her. About noon the *Blücher* sank, but not before she had done considerable damage to Beatty's flagship, the *Lion,* which was put out of action at about eleven o'clock.

The British pursued the German ships to within seventy miles of Helgoland Bight, where the engagement was broken off because the British feared the mine fields. All through the chase, however, the German ships dropped floating mines as they ran away, but this did not stop the British. It was only the fear of running into a wide area of mines and having their ships blown up that made the British stop.

It was a gallant fight on both sides, in spite of the fact that the Germans were running away and the British pursuing them. The long range between the ships and the accuracy of gun fire of the battle cruisers on both sides astonished the world and made this type of warship very prominent.

The Dogger Bank encounter was the first of the two North Sea Battles. The second and greater was not to take place until nearly a year and a half later. The great

ships of the British Grand Fleet were to settle down to silent watching and constant patrolling.

Let us turn now many miles away from the scenes of the North Sea to the far end of the Mediterranean where a narrow strip of water from the Ægean Sea to the Sea of Marmora separates the mainland of Europe from that of Asia. This narrow passage, called the Straits of the Dardanelles, under international law was closed in time of war to the fighting ships of all the nations. We have seen how the German ships, *Goeben* and *Breslau,* violated this international law and escaped to safety in the Golden Horn. That illegal act, which had been arranged between Germany and Turkey, had been the cause of driving Turkey into the war. It was the purpose now of the Allies to send their warships up the Dardanelles for two very decided reasons. The first was to take Constantinople and force Turkey out of the war, and the second was that by so doing, they would open a route to the Russian Black Sea ports by which supplies and ammunition could be sent to the Russians and their great stores of grain, which the Allies needed so badly, could be brought away. To succeed in carrying out this very vital purpose, it was necessary to reduce all the forts on both sides of the Dardanelles at the entrance, then steam up the Straits and destroy the forts at The Narrows for a clear passage to the Sea of Marmora. Admiral Carden, in command of the Anglo-French Fleet, believed that this could be accomplished in about a month. He had under his command eighteen battleships, nine cruisers, and five destroyers in the British

Fleet together with the French Fleet of seven battleships and three cruisers. Most of these ships were of the pre-dreadnought type. England, however, had sent out to join the Fleet her newest and most powerful battleship, the *Queen Elizabeth.*

On February 19th early in the morning, Vice Admiral Carden in command of the British Fleet and Rear Admiral Guepratte, in command of the French Fleet, began a bombardment of the forts to the entrance of the Dardanelles on both the European and Asiatic shores. By afternoon the forts had been silenced. Bad weather came on which compelled the ships to suspend operations for several days. On the 25th, another bombardment of the forts took place and this time, having the way cleared by mine sweepers, a number of the larger battleships steamed four miles up the Straits, and destroyed Fort Dardanos. Again bad weather intervened and the operations were held up. In the meantime, the Turks had rehabilitated the forts. On March 1st the bombardment began again, which continued for four days, and with the aid of mine sweepers, the battleships reached to within one mile and a half of the Narrows. The giant dreadnought, *Queen Elizabeth,* with the battleships *Agamemnon* and *Ocean,* were now dispatched to the Gulf of Saros along the European shore on the western side of Gallipoli and began a long range, indirect fire, guided by airmen, upon the forts on the Asiatic side of The Narrows. A violent bombardment was kept up at the same time on the forts on both sides of The Narrows by the warships in the Straits. This engagement took

place on the 6th and 7th of March, but was not successful. After the 7th there was a long lull in the operations until the 18th of the month, when a general attack by both the British and French ships was concentrated on the forts at The Narrows. The ships were greeted with a heavy fire from the forts. Nearly all of them were hit and had to retreat. More ships came up to take their places and kept up a constant fire upon the forts. The mine sweepers were steadily at work trying to open a passage for the battleships to pass through into the Sea of Marmora. The day of the 18th of March was a critical time in the operations upon the forts on both sides of The Narrows. Floating mines came drifting down on the current and sank the French ship, *Bouvet,* and the British ships, *Irresistible* and *Ocean.* The French ship, *Gaulois,* and the British ship, *Inflexible,* were also severely damaged by gun fire from the forts. German submarines brought overland in parts and assembled at Constantinople now came down to the Straits to help in the defense. It was found impossible by Admiral de Robeck, who had succeeded Admiral Carden in command of the Anglo-French Fleet, to destroy the forts by naval attack, and it was given up.

CHAPTER III

THE NAVIES IN 1916 AND 1917

THE year 1916 will ever be memorable for the biggest naval battle in the history of the world. Except for the constant and laborious work of the small craft in the North Sea, through the English Channel, in the Mediterranean and Adriatic Seas, only one event stands out in the naval history of the year. That event was the Battle of Jutland, when the British Grand Fleet and the German High Seas Fleet were locked in deadly combat. It would seem as if not only all the years of this great world war, but all the years of a century were crowded into this supreme test of naval power between England and Germany. It was *"Der Tag," The Day* which for nearly half a century the Germans had boasted about and looked forward to with pompous vanity. It was a challenge for which Great Britain waited calmly, confidently, and in every way prepared. For nearly two years, the British Fleet stood and waited with its eyes ever upon the German coast for the welcome sign that at last the Germans would come out and fight. All that time the Germans had been watching too, watching for an opportunity to catch the British Grand Fleet separated so that they might overwhelm part of it with a superior force.

This would so reduce the strength of the British Fleet as to compel it to fight on even terms with the Germans; but the British were not to be caught napping. That mighty armada, the Grand Fleet, under the command of Admiral Jellicoe, was created in August, 1914, for two purposes only. One was to supply the iron rim in the blockade against the German coast, and the other was to fight the German High Seas Fleet should it ever come out into the North Sea. Therefore it was never separated and there was never a minute during the nearly two years of patient waiting when the British Fleet was not ready at a second's notice to fight. Day and night the boilers in the ships of the great fleet were kept going so that within a minute's notice pressure could be forced to the utmost, and the ships on their way to the scene of action. In every other respect the great Fleet was ready, the officers and crews knowing how, and ready, to the very least detail to do their duties. So on the afternoon of May 31, 1916, the Germans were discovered well up into the North Sea off Jutland on the Danish coast. Now let us see how the forces were opposed.

Vice Admiral Beatty was in command of the advance force of the British Fleet, consisting of six battle cruisers, supported by Rear Admiral Evan Thomas with four battleships of the *Queen Elizabeth* class. The main body of the Fleet under the supreme command of Admiral Jellicoe, who flew his flag on the *Iron Duke,* consisted of twenty-five dreadnoughts in three squadrons, commanded by Rear Admiral Arbuthnot and Vice Admirals Burney,

Perram, and Sturdee, with a squadron of three fast cruisers under the command of Admiral Hood. About twenty light cruisers and 160 destroyers were divided between the advance force of Admiral Beatty and the main force of Admiral Jellicoe. Now on the German side was an advance force of five battle cruisers under Vice Admiral von Hipper. The main body of the German Fleet consisted of sixteen dreadnoughts, and six pre-dreadnought battleships. About 20 light cruisers and 90 destroyers were divided between the advance force and the main body of the German Fleet, which was under the supreme command of Admiral von Sheer.

Now the battle was divided into four stages. Admiral Beatty with the British advance force met Admiral von Hipper with the German advance force, and became engaged in parallel courses curving to the southeast at a range of 18,500 yards. The battle went on furiously for over an hour and drew in the light cruisers and destroyers on both sides who fought a savage battle at close range. In this first phase of the battle, the English suffered severe losses, losing two of their battleships, the *Indefatigable* and *Queen Mary,* besides four destroyers. Now at this stage of the battle, it is said that the British Admiral, Beatty, played into the hands of the Germans by rashly exposing his squadron through impetuosity. On the other hand, it is said that Beatty's purpose was to hold the German advance force and draw on the main force of German dreadnoughts, and then lead them into the direction of Admiral Jellicoe's main force of the Grand Fleet, which

he knew to be speeding to the scene of action from the north. In doing this, Beatty tried to maneuver his squadron to the southward of von Hipper's squadron, which he successfully did, at the same time signaling Admiral Thomas to close in on the Germans with his support, the Fifth Battle Squadron. In doing this, Admiral Thomas's ships fell into battle astern of Beatty's battle cruisers, and came under the fire of the main German High Seas Fleet which at this time came upon the scene of action. Admiral Beatty now had the satisfaction of sighting the leading ships of Admiral Jellicoe's main fleet bearing down with great speed from the north to take part in the battle. When it was still five miles away, Beatty turned his squadron due east, and thus opened a great gap between his ships and Admiral Thomas's supporting squadron of battleships. So before Admiral Jellicoe with his great fleet of dreadnoughts got into the battle, Admiral Beatty's squadrons with the support of Admiral Thomas's battleships were fighting the entire German High Seas Fleet.

Admiral Beatty has been criticized for his rashness, but he was, at least, living up to the daring traditions of the British Navy. It seems that he had one very great purpose in mind which justified his fighting against such great odds, and that was to hold the entire German High Seas Fleet in action until Admiral Jellicoe brought his great mass of dreadnoughts into the attack, then get to the south of the German Fleet and prevent its escape while Admiral Jellicoe's ships destroyed them. Thus the second phase of the Battle of Jutland ends and the third phase

begins with the British Grand Fleet opening fire upon the main body of the German High Seas Fleet.

Rear Admiral Hood with three battle cruisers and a screen of light cruisers and destroyers, forming the advanced swift wing of Admiral Jellicoe's main force, went into action a little after 6 o'clock. Admiral Hood's flagship, the *Invincible,* was sunk by gun fire and the gallant Admiral went down with his ship. Admiral Jellicoe's battle fleet now steamed into the gap we have mentioned that was opened between Admiral Beatty's battle cruisers and Admiral Thomas's support battle squadron, formed into battle line and opened fire upon the German High Seas Fleet. At this time, and how strange it seems, both on land and sea the natural elements intervened to favor the Germans. A low mist rose from the water with which was mingled the thick drifting smoke from the guns, and which hid many of the enemy's ships. This is the "low visibility" of which you have heard so much said in connection with the Battle of Jutland. Only a few ships in the enemy's battle line could be seen at a time, and the engagement was broken into fragments, instead of being one inclusive and continuous battle. The battle between the British Grand Fleet and the German High Seas Fleet lasted for over two hours, with the British Fleet between the German Fleet and its bases, but under the "low visibility" and the cover of the approaching night the German Fleet eluded the British and got away. It has been asked why did not Admiral Jellicoe, with the advantage he had in position, destroy the German Fleet by a vigorous all

night action. It was not fear of the German battleships that prevented him from pursuing the German Fleet southward during the night. He feared the mines and submarines which, unseen in the dark waters, would sink his ships. Thus it was caution which made the British Admiral permit a decisive victory to slip through his fingers. He had proven in a ship to ship fight the superiority of the British Fleet which still assured it control of the sea, and that meant the safety of England. But if his great dreadnoughts had been measurably reduced by mines and submarines without equal losses to the German Fleet, their next challenge would have a promise of success, and any decisive success against the main body of British sea power meant the downfall of England.

In the early dawn of June 1st, Admiral Jellicoe's Fleet with Admiral Beatty's on his right slightly ahead, was ninety miles to the south of the battlefield. The German Fleet could not have been very far ahead, but they were effectually hidden by the "low visibility." This undoubtedly enabled them to return to their bases while the British Fleet turned again northward. The battle was over. In spite of the heavy losses sustained by the British, the Union Jack was still supreme upon the seas.

But the cowardly submarine warfare carried on by the Germans became more formidable. Early in 1917 the German Government announced unrestricted submarine warfare in specified zones about the British Isles.

In 1917 the Germans sank so many ships that the very existence of Great Britian was threatened. The losses ap-

proached the appalling figure of a million tons a month—losses that if sustained for any length of time would bring a quick end to the war in favor of Germany. President Wilson asked Congress that an armed guard be placed upon all American merchant vessels. It was plain that the German submarine operations would soon bring the United States into the war.

Late in March, 1917, the American Admiral, William S. Sims was sent by Washington to Great Britian, where he learned that the true facts regarding submarine warfare had not been given to the British public and that Germany was actually winning the war through her submarine operations. Admiral Sims promptly made these facts known to Washington and after the declaration of war by the United States prevailed upon his country to send at once all possible craft that could be used against the submarine to co-operate with the British Navy. Heroic efforts were made to check the submarine terror. New mine fields were laid, systems of convoying vessels were planned with great success and new weapons were brought into play against the submarine, notably the depth bomb. Destroyers, the most effective vessels against submarines, were constructed as fast as possible.

Helpless against the British Grand Fleet the German naval authorities turned their attentions against the Russians. But on August 10th the Russians defeated a German squadron of nine battleships, twelve cruisers and many destroyers that attempted to enter the Gulf of Riga and the Germans were compelled to leave the gulf. On

October 17th, however, the Russians were defeated there in another naval engagement. The Russian battleship *Slava,* 13,516 tons, was sunk, and several other and smaller vessels.

CHAPTER IV

THE NAVIES IN 1918

WE now come to the most heroic episode performed by the British navy during the war. When the Germans overran Belgium, they turned Zeebrugge and Ostend into submarine bases. They were connected with Bruges by canals, to which place the Germans brought their submarines in parts, assembled them together, and drove them out to sea from Zeebrugge and Ostend. These two Flemish ports had no natural harbors; but by skillful engineering, the Germans fitted them to their purpose. All during 1915, 1916 and 1917, these pirates, the submarines, went out to sea unmolested and destroyed the Allied and neutral shipping and sunk passenger ships without mercy. If the Allies could destroy the submarine bases in Flanders, they could check this dangerous undersea warfare, because then the Germans would have to send the submarines from the Baltic which was much more difficult and at a greater distance from the open sea and the limited radius of action of the submarines would put a limit to their operations. Time and again the British sent airplanes to bomb the submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend; but the great height from which it was necessary to drop bombs to avoid the anti-

aircraft guns, made the targets uncertain. Considerable destruction, of course, was done from these airplane raids; but the Germans were always able speedily to repair what damage was done, which had little or no effect upon the work of the submarines. Matters became so bad that it was necessary to do something drastic to kill the submarine warfare at its source. Many devices were used to destroy the submarines at sea. This was very slow work and entailed a great deal of labor as well as danger; but if the bases, the ports where the submarines were fitted out, that is, supplied with fuel and torpedoes and repaired, were destroyed, then much of the danger from this unlawful sea fighting would be ended. Hence the British planned to destroy the two most important submarine bases in Belgium.

The episode I am about to describe was one of the most heroic in the annals of the British navy. The high spirit in which the officers and men entered into this extremely dangerous task was magnificent. The chances of certain death to all the men who were engaged in it were such that the British Admiralty did not think that it ought to command the men to undertake it; so volunteer crews were made up, that is, the seamen of the British navy were given to understand that a very dangerous mission was to be undertaken and that the men could have their choice as to whether they would take part in it or not. Of course, they did not know what the nature of the task was or where it was to be performed. Great secrecy had to be kept to keep the attack from leaking through and reach-

ing the enemy; and so it is interesting to know that the number of crews that were needed was made up many times over by the volunteers, so eager were the men to take part in a dangerous exploit for the glory of Great Britain.

It was on Saint George's Day, the 23rd of April, 1918, that the assault on the German bases took place. Saint George, as you know, is the patron saint of England, and so the day was auspicious for the undertaking of a task so vital to the protection of the English people. The operation was conducted by forces that made up a part of the Dover Patrol, that portion of the British navy which had its base at Dover and had to keep safe the entrance to the British Channel. Rear Admiral Roger Keyes was in supreme command of the attack.

Early in the morning of April 23rd, the light cruiser, *Vindictive,* with two ferry boats, the *Iris* and *Daffodil,* which had been used in ferrying across the Mersey at Wallasey; three concrete laden ships, the *Thetis, Intrepid,* and *Iphigenia,* for Zeebrugge; the two concrete laden ships, the *Sirius* and *Brilliant,* for Ostend; and the destroyers, *North Star, Phoebe,* and *Warwick,* on which Admiral Keyes directed the operations; and a number of motor launches steamed in the darkness behind a heavy smoke screen to Zeebrugge and Ostend. Their object was to sink the five concrete laden ships in the two narrow channels at these two bases and choke the passage through which the submarines put out to sea. The attempt at Zeebrugge was the larger and more dangerous operation;

and here the attempt was wholly successful, while at Ostend it was only partially so.

At Zeebrugge was a long mole or concrete pier connected with the shore by a wooden trestle or viaduct a quarter of a mile long, heavily fortified with guns. It was the *Vindictive's* duty to run alongside of this mole and land a storming party to prevent the Germans from turning their guns on the concrete laden ships which were to be sunk in the channel. In the meantime, the submarine laden with high explosives was to be run under the trestle work that connected the mole with the shore and be blown up, tearing it apart, preventing reënforcements from reaching the mole to attack the storming party that had landed from the *Vindictive.*

As the *Vindictive* neared the mole behind the thick screen of smoke, Admiral Keyes on the destroyer, *Warwick,* signaled for the attack to begin, using the words, "Saint George for England," and the *Vindictive* flashed back the reply, "May we give the dragon's tail a damn good twist." The *Vindictive* was supplied with a high false bridge from which the storming party was to cross from the ship to the mole. But when the *Vindictive* approached the mole, the wind shifted throwing back the smoke screen and laying her bare to the Germans. Immediately they sent up a star shell which was followed by a great flash of searchlights that settled on the *Vindictive;* and at once the batteries and machine guns along the mole poured a deluge of shells and bullets upon the ships. When this happened, the *Vindictive* was three hundred yards

from the mole; but Commander Carpenter with superb skill brought his ship alongside in a few minutes and soon eighteen gangways were thrown out. With the words, "Over you go, Royals," the storming party of three or four hundred men landed and fought like demons against the defenders.

About fifteen minutes after the *Vindictive* had taken her place alongside of the mole at which she was held, bow and stern, by the ferry boats which had accompanied her, a terrific explosion was heard at the rear end of the mole. The submarine had exploded and blown up the trestle, cutting off the reënforcements. Now the three concrete laden ships, the *Thetis, Intrepid,* and *Iphigenia,* firing terrific broadsides and receiving a rain of shells from the shore batteries, accompanied by motor launches which were to take off their crews, steamed into the Channel, and blew up and sunk.

The great deed was now accomplished. The *Vindictive* blew twelve sirens and signaled many times to recall the storming party on the mole. Commander Carpenter waited until he was convinced that all the men had returned before he gave the command to withdraw. The *Vindictive* under a curtain of smoke drew away from the mole and with the other ships made for the sea. A perfect torrent of shells from German batteries bade them good-by. The destroyer, *North Star,* losing her way in the dense smoke emerged into the glare of the enemy's search-lights and hit many times by his shells, was soon sunk. The other ships got away safely, but the *Vindictive* had

been hit many times as she stood along the mole and all her upper structure was severely battered. The brave old ship when she returned to Dover was badly wounded after her dangerous exploit, but was sound and the most admired ship in the British navy.

At Ostend, the operation under the command of Commodore Hubert Lynes was not nearly so successful. Here it was not necessary to land a storming party. The difficulty was in finding the entrance to the Channel; and in the dense darkness, motor boats had to light great flares to guide the concrete laden ships into the Channel. These flares were snuffed out time and time again by the German batteries; but finally, the motor boats dropped flares, which were great torches thrown upon the water, which burned long enough to guide the ships in. But the two concrete laden ships, the *Brilliant* and *Sirius,* were hit many times by the shore batteries and were in a sinking condition when taken into the Channel and blown up. The positions, however, in which they were sunk did not effectually block the Channel. It remained for the *Vindictive* to complete the attempt that was made on Saint George's Day nearly two weeks later. At two o'clock on the morning of May 10th, the *Vindictive* under a hurricane of shells from the shore batteries was herself sunk across the Channel at Ostend,—and so ended the life of this noble ship.

The results of the assaults on the submarine bases at Zeebrugge and Ostend were immediate. The Channel at Zeebrugge was wholly blocked; that at Ostend partially

so, and from this time, the submarine warfare of the Germans began to cease. The Germans had been hit a mighty blow at the source of their cruelest and most effective strength against the Allies. The dragon's tail had indeed been twisted, and twisted so badly that he crawled into his lair wounded unto death.

PART V

MARVELS OF ACHIEVEMENTS

CHAPTER I

HOW MEN TOOK WINGS AND FOUGHT

NOW as in the past, the armies in the field have been the center of attraction to all the world. Where did the soldiers fight, how many were engaged, who won the battle, how many prisoners and guns were captured? This is what the world has wanted to know. In olden times, the winning of battles was largely determined by three or four things: the genius of the commanding general, the superior number of men on one side or the other, or the advantage of position. Of course, the feeding and ammunitioning of the troops had its influence on the outcome of the battle; but in modern warfare, and in such a war as the World War, there had entered other elements into the whole scheme of battle which changed its character, and had a tremendous effect upon the results. These elements, while they have attracted a great deal of attention, are, after all, in the general mind apart from the main interest of the battle itself. The main interest consists of killing a greater number of the enemy and of taking a large part of the territory in his possession. Now the recent war was not many months old, when it was proved that these essential purposes of the fighting could not be accomplished without the help

of a new machine, which for the first time came into use in battle. This was the airplane. Some ten or fifteen years before the war broke out, and after many years of experiment, two Americans, the Wright brothers, through their invention of a heavier-than-air machine, gave to mankind the power of wings. What these two men accomplished was the fact that man could fly, but that accomplishment did not pass much beyond a fact when the war began. But it was enough that man had wings.

Now when the war started and the Germans sent their troops into Belgium, they also sent aviators flying over the troops gathering information of the country over which they marched, which was of great value. The Germans flew in a machine called the Taube, which means dove. They had the only flying machine that was used for military purposes, and they alone were making use of this new achievement for warfare. It was not long, however, before France, who was the first to see the necessity of offsetting this advantage, began to build airplanes for military use. The first German airplanes were merely used for scouting, though the aviators were equipped with pistols and rifles. The early French machines were also for scouting, but the French went one step further and mounted machine-guns. Then the British came along and built heavy machines for combat; indeed, the real air fighting began when the British began to develop the airplane for fighting purposes, and a subsequent change in military aviation took place.

The airplane was first the "eye of the army." And as

Painting by Cyrus Cuneo
By arrangement with Jarrold & Sons, Ltd.

HIGH ABOVE THE EARTH DAREDEVILS FOUGHT EACH OTHER

the eye it developed many uses. From watching and reporting the enemy's movements, it began discovering the positions of the enemy's batteries and trenches and making photographs of them. Their exact locations being fixed by the camera the guns would begin to shell them. The guns being many miles away from the target at which they shot, of course they could not be seen. When the shells fell the aviator high up in the air in his machine would watch the effect of the shots, and when they went wide of the mark he would send messages by wireless or other means back to the batteries correcting the range. Thus the airplane rendered an invaluable service that nothing else could have done.

There were four distinct types of airplanes needed for military purposes. There were the scouting machines such as the German Taube, the French Blériots or the Sopwith; the artillery-spotters which had many of the characteristics of the scouting machines; the battling airplanes like the German Fokkers; and the great bombing machines, the giants of the sky, like the German Gotha, the British Handley-Page and the Italian Caproni.

Often these different types of machines worked in squadrons in regular battle formation in the sky. The battle-planes were the smallest and lightest of all, and the speediest, usually with one man aboard. A machine-gun was over the blades of the propeller. The aim of the machine-gun was in the direction of the airplane and an arrangement was made by which an instrument on the propeller-shaft worked the trigger of the machine-gun so

that the bullets would fly to their mark between the revolutions of the propeller. The mechanism was so arranged for a shot to be fired at every two revolutions of the propeller, as the machine-gun would fire about five hundred rounds a minute while the propeller would revolve about twelve hundred times a minute.

The aviators often fought among the clouds twenty thousand feet in the air. Their speed reached as high as 150 miles an hour.

The giants of the sky, the bombing planes, were used for attacking important military positions and bases. Ammunition dumps, troops-trains, railway stations, submarine bases, and munition factories were the principal targets for the Allied airmen. The Germans thought it was of some military importance to use their machines to bomb open towns, that is unfortified cities, and kill helpless old men and women and innocent children. These bombing planes were always accompanied by battle-planes to keep off the enemy's battle-plane which sought to attack and destroy the bombers. The largest of the bombing planes, the Caproni, carried a crew of three men, 2,750 pounds of explosives, and was driven by three engines with a total of 900 horse-power.

In perfecting the military uses of the airplane many remarkable things were invented and adapted which not only made it do its work in the air well but kept it in close touch with the earth. This seems very wonderful, but the most important part of the airmen's work was to keep the command in the field informed of what was going on miles

behind the enemy's lines, and as time was a vital factor it was necessary to report the information quickly. And so the airmen were able to talk from the clouds as well as send wireless messages.

I have spoken chiefly of airplanes as a new factor in warfare. But what of the men who flew in them, who fought high in the clouds and who went on long journeys in the night to bomb and destroy the enemy's military positions? The Great War on the ground was full of heroism but there was little romance about it. Science and machinery had robbed war of all the romance that it had known in the past. Military aviation was scientific too, and not only so in itself, but it made war on the ground more scientific because the armies had to protect themselves from its all-seeing eye. The feats of the air-fighting, however, gave to the Great War its only touch of romance. This was because aërial warfare was one of personal encounters. High above the earth with nothing more stable than the air, buffeted by strong currents of winds, hid from both earth and sky by great masses of clouds, brave and daring men fought each other. Not since the Homeric heroes of the Iliad have there been any warriors like these modern fighters in the air.

They were men selected for their steady nerves and cool brains. Men who did not fear death, who, indeed, every time they went up into the air courted it. Their responsibilities were immense because the safety and success of whole armies depended upon their courage and skill. They were compelled to fight the elements as well as man.

The jaws of death were always about them ready at the least mishap to close and swallow them. The romance of the combats they fought was in escaping from those jaws as they were about to close. Again and again the airman would escape, winning victory after victory against man and nature, until, daring once too often, something would fail him. It was not courage nor skill, which nerved the aviator to the last, but some bit of mechanism, some trickery of nature or of the enemy that brought the end.

Between the airmen of both sides in the war there was a chivalry that existed in no other branch of service among the belligerents. This is accounted for in the fact that men of the most gentlemanly characters took to aviation and they appreciated fully the dangers of flying.

Captain Boelke was the most famous of the German flyers. He would hide in the clouds awaiting an enemy upon whom he would descend and attack with a rain of machine-gun bullets as soon as he came within range. The unsuspecting enemy would be sent crashing to the earth. If he missed his prey the speed of his machine would carry him past the enemy to safety. He would not return to the attack. Count von Richthofen was another famous German aviator and was the inventor of the "flying circus."

Among the British aviators Captain Bishop, the Canadian, was greatly celebrated for his deeds. France had many daring and intrepid airmen, perhaps more "Aces," that is, those who were officially credited with five enemy planes, than any of the Allied nations.

Among the most celebrated of these was George S.

Guynemer, the "gallant flying boy." He was the commander of "The Storks," the most famous of all the "flying squadrons." He was a very eagle of the air. Although possessing a frail body he had a fiery and indomitable mind, and became the greatest airman of the war. After a greater number of more daring victories than any other aviator, he was killed. How, it was never known, only he was not seen after he began his last flight. It is supposed that his machine was set afire and he perished, his ashes blown by the four winds about the skies where he took so many risks and achieved such glory.

Next to Guynemer, Lieutenant René Fonck was the most famous of French airmen. In his first fight he brought down three German machines in a battle which only lasted a minute and a half. His great feat was six German machines destroyed in three combats that altogether lasted less than two hours. At the end of the war he was credited with seventy-five official victories. Forty more German machines are said to have been destroyed by him.

Both the Italians and Russians had brilliant aviators. Gabrielle D'Annunzio, the Italian poet and novelist, is the most famous of the Italians for his spectacular flights over the Austrian lines. He performed valiant service flying among his own countrymen, exhorting them to greater sacrifices to win the war. D'Annunzio's career as an aviator is remarkable because of his age, which was far beyond the limit of most men fitted for the service. But his spirit and courage, strengthened and fired by a patriotism that was almost fanatic in its zeal, more than made up for

the youth that he had lost when he began to fly. Lieutenant Commander Prokofieff-Seversky was among the most noted of Russian aviators.

The Americans made daring aviators. Long before America had entered the war many of her young men were flying for France. Among the pioneers were Norman Prince, William Thaw, Eliot Cowdin and Raoul Lufbery. They, with many others, belonged to the Lafayette Escadrille, which was formed by William Thaw. Edward Rickenbacker was the most daring of the American flyers, performing innumerable feats in battling the Germans and escaping death time and again by the narrowest margin. He came through the war safely. Three young aviators who lost their lives may be cited as typical examples of the very flower of American youth who braved the perils of the air for the great cause of civilization. These gallant young lads, Quentin Roosevelt, son of the late ex-President Roosevelt, who was killed in an aërial battle near Château-Thierry on July 17, 1918; Jack Wright, the "Poet of the Air," who was killed in an accident just after winning his commission in January, 1918; and Samuel P. Mandell, 2d, who was killed on a bombing expedition on November 5, 1918, just a few days before the armistice was signed, have won an everlasting place in the memory of their countrymen.

The achievements of America in the air were notable in spite of the fact that we were so late starting. From the middle of September, 1918, to the end of the war two months later there were 740 American planes in active

service with 744 pilots and 453 observers. The official record of the American aviators was 473 German machines destroyed, of which only 120 were unconfirmed. The conquest of the air was an American achievement, and the American aviators in the war showed an untiring energy and fearless spirit in keeping with its tradition of conquest.

CHAPTER II

HOW THE DOCTORS FOUGHT AND WON VICTORIES

THERE was an army of soldiers whose names you never heard mentioned in the dispatches from the front. These soldiers fought day and night unwearyingly and unceasingly. And they fought an enemy more powerful than those who fought in the trenches. For this enemy was absolutely invisible, and his presence was known by the horror and suffering he left among the living. He was only merciful when wholly triumphant, because then he brought utter peace and escape from pain in the eternal sleep that knows no mortal waking. This enemy was Death and he fought Life in the Great War with two cruel weapons, Wounds and Disease. Against these battled the silent army of which I spoke, the doctors, who for over four long, terrible years struggled to destroy Death's two weapons so that life might be preserved and mankind saved from destruction.

How often have you heard it said that the great fight for civilization, because it was fought so scientifically and mechanically, had robbed war of its romance and magic. I have tried to make you understand that the aviators kept romance alive, and now I want you also to understand that magic was kept alive by the doctors. The

aviators were the modern knights of the war, and the doctors were the modern wizards of the war.

The combat of the doctors was not like that of the combatants in the trenches, man against man, nor was the prize to be gained like so many miles of territory. They fought, as I have said, against an invisible foe, and the prize they contended for was life itself. It was a far more deadly struggle than you can imagine. And the doctors won! Can you believe that? It is true for two reasons. In the first place, the doctors taught mankind how to save more lives than war can destroy; not only the lives that war itself did or may destroy, but the lives that Peace is every day destroying in a hundred ways. And in the second place, they did this by learning more about their science and by successfully practicing what they learned in the four years of the war than had been learned by the profession in the previous half century. When you consider the conditions under which this great progress was made you must admit that the doctors were wizards, and that the word has taken on a nobler meaning which inspires our reverence.

In medicine and surgery veritable wonders were performed. America contributed more to the advancement of surgery than any other nation. The Americans, it seemed, had a genius for surgery. Battered and broken soldiers suffering intensely were brought from the pitiless exposure of No Man's Land, put into their sensitive but energetic hands and had their bodies mended. The American doctors went to France and worked among the French

and British soldiers long before we entered the war. Not only to France, but they carried out their merciful ministrations in Serbia, Russia, and in the east; in fact, wherever the fire and steel of war had inflicted torture upon human flesh. Not only among the soldiers did they perform their noble duties but among the civilian populations of all the Allied countries where starvation and disease raged. There is no nobler page in the history of war or peace than that page which chronicles the patient and dangerous work of our doctors and nurses in stamping out the typhus epidemic that raged throughout Serbia after the German conquest in 1915 and 1916.

And as to the nurses who with such devotion and sacrifice assisted the doctors in their work,—what shall be said of these "angels" as the wounded and dying men knew them to be? There are no words tender as they were tender, patient as they were patient, brave as they were brave, or as strong in meaning as they were in spirit, to describe and praise them. The memory of thousands and thousands of soldiers will in the years to come have one everlasting and imperishable vision of Heaven which came to them in the presence of the nurse whose voice and hands helped to heal body and mind of the scars of battle.

To understand what the doctors had to overcome it may be well to emphasize the problems which the battlefields presented. It is quite obvious that wounds and disease formed the whole problem. But doctors in times of prolonged peace have always had these to treat and overcome. No, it was not these in themselves that made

the problem of treatment so great. It was the magnitude of the wounds on the one hand and the rapid spread of disease on the other. There were poor human bodies so shattered that it was hard to believe that any skill could patch and heal the fragments. Yet they were patched and healed. The success of treating the wounds of soldiers depended upon curing the raw flesh of infection. In peacetime the surgeon always took the utmost precaution during an operation in protecting the patient from germs. In the shelter and protection of the modern home or hospital to do so was a watchful and vital task. But in war when the soldier might lie for hours in the trench or field with bits of lead or steel in his flesh and the wound covered with germ-laden dirt, the danger of infection was a thousand-fold greater. Thus one of the first obstacles the doctors had to overcome was infection. This was of the first importance because operations could not be successfully attempted unless this danger was disposed of. Soldiers had to be relieved of pain, not merely in the performing of operations which were mastered long before the war through the administering of anesthetics, but in the removing and putting on of bandages and the dressing of wounds while the patient was conscious. For this purpose a young American, Gordon Young, discovered a wonderful anesthetic for spraying wounds and burns which relieved the patient's agony. Another important, indeed very vital, problem was the development of military orthopedics, that is, the prevention of deformity. Experts in this branch of surgery worked close to the firing line

and all the way back to the base orthopedic hospital, rendering immediate and constant aid to the broken limbs and ruptured muscles of the soldiers so that the mending and healing of them would prevent deformity.

It would only be possible to suggest some of the marvels achieved by the medical profession in overcoming some of these problems and so cheating misery and death of their many victims in war.

A great English medical authority, Sir Almroth Wright, said that the method discovered by Dr. Carrel and Dr. Dakin for treating infected wounds was the most valuable contribution to "surgical technique" made in the war. The treatment is made by regularly irrigating, that is, to wet or moisten the wound with a fluid. This fluid was a non-caustic hypochlorite, that is, a salt substance, which Drs. Carrel and Dakin originated. The method of applying the fluid was quite as important as the fluid itself in curing infections. This discovery is one of the greatest benefits to humanity that the world has lately received, and everywhere doctors are learning the use of it to save human life.

Another marvelous discovery brought about by the war was the method and use of chlorination. This was the use of some combination of chlorine gas in destroying malignant germs which create pus in the system. The X-ray has been developed to discover the gas bacillus which causes gangrene, that is, the decomposition of the tissues that result in poisoning the body. Many serums, that is, animal fluids such as blood, milk and so forth, taken from

the body, have been discovered for the prevention and cure for such diseases as lockjaw, meningitis, pneumonia and fevers.

The new surgery developed by the war was not merely content in saving life, but it worked successfully to repair the damages done by fire and steel to the human body, and to restore the limbs and features of the body so that they could perform their normal functions. Artificial hands, feet and legs have for a long time been manufactured to replace these useful members of the human body, but never before with such perfection. The war-time surgeon has mastered the anatomy of the human body as a mechanic masters his machine. He learned to a nicety how to repair it so that it would be difficult to say where it had been broken. He learned to make a man whole again and so make him useful as a citizen. Perhaps the most wonderful and magical of this kind of achievement in surgery was accomplished at a hospital in Milan, Italy, where artificial jaws, palates, bones, ears and noses were made and fitted and made to work so that the person was scarcely aware of the loss of these members which nature had given him. Our own American doctors have taken the battered face of a man and given him a new one and with a natural skin which would deceive almost any one.

Yes, the doctors fought not against man, but with suffering, deformity and death, and for life and for usefulness, and they won. Their victories are the marvels and the magic of the war.

CHAPTER III

HOW THE INVENTORS FOUGHT

THE Germans were quite confident of winning the war at the beginning because they intended to fight scientifically and use scientific weapons. For a long, long while warfare had been taught as a science in the military schools of all the great nations, but in the actual conflict of the battlefield man had regarded and referred to it as an art. Since it was a science in theory, why not make it a science in fact, thought the Prussian militarists. To this thought they added another, which was, that the first nation to do so would be invincible. So the Germans made scientific warfare, which was only another way of saying that war was a question of mechanics. So the Great War became one of mechanics. It was conducted like a machine.

Now it is one thing to run a machine and it is quite another thing to invent one. Of course, an inventor of a machine can run the machine he invents. The Germans are a very efficient people and they learned to construct a military machine, but they did not invent any of the vital parts that went into the making of their machine. The Germans are not an inventive people, but they are very wonderful at adapting and improving the inventions of

other people. Four of the instruments which were the most vital in their scientific and barbarous warfare were not the inventions of the Germans. The airplane, the submarine, barbed-wire, and the machine-gun were invented by Americans. The world is quite willing to give the Germans the credit for inventing the Zeppelin because the Zeppelin was a failure. But the world will never forgive the Germans for inventing poison gas, not because it did not succeed, but because it was barbarous. Before the end of the war the Germans would very gladly have exchanged the success they won for the pledge they had violated in using it. They suffered more than they had gained by it. The Germans are the greatest chemists in the world, and they used this superiority in two of the most frightful weapons of the war, poison gas and high explosives. In these they were in time matched and surpassed. In all other inventions they showed themselves to be far outmatched. Their ability to copy and improve upon the inventions of the Allies became seriously handicapped as the war went on because their supplies of raw materials became exhausted. Rubber, cotton and copper were very essential for the successful manufacture of many weapons and under the British blockade it was absolutely impossible to obtain these materials. The Allies had an unlimited supply of these and other essential raw materials, and with the superior inventive genius of the Americans, French and British, new weapons and instruments of defense and destruction were being constantly increased as

well as the mechanism of those already in use being improved.

I cannot, of course, begin to number or describe the great number of inventions that the war brought into existence to meet the vital needs of the belligerents. A great number of them were of the smallest mechanism and were designed for uses that were not in the least spectacular. For this reason, however, they were none the less remarkable. The whole character of the Great War was so different from that of any other war that man had the need of new instruments, non-destructive as well as destructive. Necessity is the mother of invention, as you have heard it said; and the necessities in the Great War were so increasingly numerous that inventions were constantly being made to meet them. So while on the battlefield the armies of the nations were fighting, the inventive thoughts of each nation were carrying on a rapid and continuous warfare of ideas that were turned into marvelous realities of mechanical power.

The ordnance department of each government had its experts continually at work on the science of gunnery, and independent inventors were seeking to devise new means of making guns larger, more accurate, and able to throw shells with a greater weight of high explosives. Guns, it need not be said, were the most essential of all destructive weapons. The Great War was not a war between rifles, that is, the infantry, but between guns, or the artillery. Even at close range it was the machine-gun and not the rifle which made a stubborn resistance and held up an ad-

vance. The Germans were the first to use the machine-gun effectively, and when the Allies, by various means in the attack, offset this advantage, the Germans invented the "pill-boxes," small concrete machine-gun fortresses to protect the machine-gunners.

The ordinary gun, that is, the gun of moderate caliber, with the exception of the French 75-millimeter, did not attract unusual attention in the war. The "barking" 75s, so-called because of the rapidity of fire which made a short, snappy report, was a murderous weapon, as the Germans complained. It was a mobile field-piece that fired a fourteen-pound shell at the rate of twenty shots a minute and had a range of nearly four miles. Though a small field-piece, this was one of the most famous guns of the war.

The super-guns, however, thrilled the world with both horror and admiration. The Germans started the war with an immense advantage in large guns, the 42-centimeter being their particular contribution to heavy artillery, and this was backed by the even more powerful Skoda howitzers of the Austrians. These two pieces were not guns, properly speaking, but howitzers. The difference between the two is that a gun has a long bore intended to throw the shell with a flat trajectory. That is, the shell from a gun is thrown at the object and travels so fast that it goes more directly through the air to the target. A howitzer is a short weapon with a large caliber, which throws a shell at a high angle into the air to come down vertically upon the object. The marvel of the German 42-centimeter and

the Austrian Skoda was their ability to throw great weights of high explosives to very great distances and batter to pieces the heaviest fortifications. The shells of these howitzers exploded after they had penetrated the armor of the forts.

The super-gun that attracted the most attention during the war was the long-range gun that the Germans fired from the St. Gobain Forest upon Paris, a distance of seventy-two miles, during the Spring offensive of 1918. This gun had to shoot around the edge of the earth to reach its target, and that target had to be many, many miles in size to be hit at all. If you want to realize the magnitude of this feat, which was notable for its magnitude and not for the damage the gun was able to do, which was small, let me acquaint you with two or three facts. If a straight line was drawn from the gun in St. Gobain Forest to the city of Paris, it would have to pass three thousand, seven hundred and fifty feet below the earth's surface on account of the curve of the earth. When the gun was fired the shell had to go so high that midway in its course it passed above the belt of gravity that surrounds the earth and reached a height of twenty-four miles before beginning its descent. Ten miles above if the shell had eyes it would have looked through a pall of darkness upon the sun, a fiery red ball above it, and below upon an immense shining sphere, the earth.

The super-gun which the Germans fired from the St. Gobain Forest was, however, nothing but a spectacular feat. Beyond killing a few innocent citizens and dama-

Painting by Vincent Lynch
Courtesy of the "Scientific American"

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THE AMERICAN CANNONEERS HURLED GAS ON THE GERMAN TRENCHES

ging a few buildings, it accomplished nothing. If it were thought that the French would become frightened and want peace, that thought was disappointed.

The French built a super-gun, the famous 52-centimeter which they used in attacks along the Chemin des Dames and was intended later to shell the circle of forts around Metz. Huge naval guns, with ranges of eighteen and twenty miles, were mounted on rail trucks and used by the Allies to bombard important military positions behind the enemy's lines. In the Argonne the Americans mounted a 16-inch naval gun with which they threw shells into Metz. But the Americans, long before the Germans had fired their super-gun from the St. Gobain Forest, designed a long-range gun that would throw a 400-pound shell one hundred and twenty miles. The gun, however, was never constructed.

With the exception of the tank none of the vital and useful inventions of the war were of a "super" nature in size and weight. They were the delicate and subtle instruments for observation, communication and detection. Destructive weapons like self-firing guns, hand-grenades, rifle-grenades and trench-mortars were brought to a high state of efficient mechanism. But such inventions as the sniperscope, an attachment fixed to the rifle through which the sharp-shooter could see the enemy from behind a parapet without exposing himself; the microphones by which the sappers, deep in the earth, could detect the presence and direction of sounds in the enemy's mines; radio-telephones by which the aviator, high in the sky, could

talk with another person on the earth, and the radio-telegraphy by which he could send messages; many improved methods of range-finding, the various methods of sweeping and salvaging mines, and devices for discovering and destroying submarines, these much less heralded and less known inventions constitute the great mechanical achievements of the war.

There was another invention that was wholly deadly and destructive, but of this I need not say much. I refer to poison gas. The Germans took the world by surprise when they introduced it on the western front in April, 1915. But in twenty-four hours the Allies had improvised a protection against poison gas, crude as it was. The gas-mask was perfected, and it was this invention that really beat the Germans at their own game. As the different forms of gas that were used became more and more deadly, the gas-mask had to be improved upon for protection. Rubber was essential in the making of the newer masks, which held boxes filled with chemicals and charcoal which was made of such various substances as peach-nuts, horse-chestnuts, cocoanut shells and so forth, and which purified the air that the soldier breathed through the mask. The Germans did not have the rubber to put into the manufacture of their gas-masks, being compelled to substitute leather, which was not nearly as effective nor as comfortable. But this was not the only result of their mistake in bringing poison gas into the war.

At first the Germans sent the gas over in clouds, for which they had to select favorable positions and wait for

favorable winds. They were not always successful in either. On one occasion the wind shifted, blew the gas upon the Germans, who were not protected with masks, and killed eleven thousand of them. Later the gas was thrown over in shells, of which there were many kinds. There was the "tear-gas" shell which made the soldier weep; and gas shells that made the soldier sneeze and vomit. And there were the Yellow Cross, the Green Cross and the Blue Cross gas shells which worked very subtly. For instance, the Green Cross shell was filled with gas in a very dangerous liquid form which would soak into the earth or lie like little pools of water on the ground. The warm sun would vaporize the liquid and the unsuspecting soldiers would think that the vapor was nothing more than the mist rising from the earth in the morning. So the morning vapors had always to be tested to find out whether they were really nature steaming the earth dry under the hot morning sun or the deadly poison gas of the Germans' invention. The Yellow Cross shell held the famous mustard gas, which would burn the flesh badly wherever it touched.

But with all these fiendish gas inventions the Allies were rapidly surpassing the Germans in the fiendish game that they proposed. The Americans had a deadlier gas, in unlimited quantities, which our chemists had invented and it was ready for use when the war came to an end. It was so deadly, it is said, that nothing could stand against it, and it was confidently asserted that the armistice saved

whole armies and cities that stood in the way of the Allies' advance to Berlin from being wiped out of existence. It was another instance of the Germans being beaten at their own game, as they were so many times during the war.

CHAPTER IV

HOW THE PEOPLE FOUGHT AT HOME

I HAVE referred a number of times in the course of this narrative to the manner in which the people fought the war. They fought it in so many ways that to tell the whole story would be to fill volumes. In the next chapter I shall tell how they fought through the agency of the volunteer welfare service organizations. The total number of people who actually carried on the work of the Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the Salvation Army, the Knights of Columbus, and the Jewish Charitable Association was very small in comparison with the population of the country. But these organizations could do very little without the support of the people, and that support was symbolized by money. The people of the nation gave the money which enabled these volunteer bodies to do their work. There were other ways in which the people fought by giving much more than mere money. Yet they fought with money, as you shall soon see. The war could no more be carried on without money than it could be carried on without soldiers. But just as the mind of the country was mobilized to conduct the war, so was the body of the country mobilized to prosecute the war. Wealth and labor are the two essential factors in life, and it is about wealth and

labor that I want to give you some idea in showing you how mightily and successfully the people fought.

Of course, there are many sides to both these factors in the war that I cannot write about here. They would in themselves need many, many pages to be clearly described and explained. The results are what I want you to grasp and understand, and these results may be suggested in a few features and figures. Under the control of the government many things were accomplished in war-time that were simply marvelous. Shipbuilding was one of the needs that had to be met. Of course, you immediately think of the troops that had to be transported to France. Important as this was there were other equally vital needs for the use of ships. England helped us with her ships to transport troops to Europe when the great military crisis of 1918 came. But England and all Europe needed our foodstuffs and supplies, and all our ships of every description were engaged in carrying these to the populations of the Old World. The shipbuilding "program" under government direction was enormously speeded up, and a large amount of labor, skilled and unskilled, was drafted for this purpose. College students during the summer vacations were represented in the shipyards in very great numbers.

Perhaps the greatest industry produced by the war was the making of munitions. The manufacture of munitions was not under direct government control. Contracts were let out to various plants that did the work. Of course, there were the government arsenals such as the famous

Watertown Arsenal in Massachusetts, which made guns, and the naval arsenal such as the Torpedo Station at Newport, Rhode Island, where torpedoes and other naval armaments were made. But everywhere all over the country private manufacturers of all sorts of commodities, from automobiles to shoes, placed their plants at the disposal of the Government to make munitions.

Hundreds of thousands of civilians, many who had never done work of this or any kind before, worked in these plants making munitions. These people were really soldiers, fighting the war with their labor. Thousands and thousands were women who toiled at their labors with readily acquired skill and cheerfulness. The work was often very dangerous. The chemicals that were used in the manufacture of high explosives often affected the health of these workers. In England the women munition-workers were called "canaries" after the color of the well-known domestic singing-bird, because their skin would turn yellowish from the chemicals. Explosions, too, were very frequent, and hundreds of lives of both men and women were lost in this way. But nothing kept this army of industrial fighters from sticking to its post just like the heroic troops in the trenches, and they stood at the lever and the bench until the victory for civilization was won.

Now I want to tell you something about the two factors without which the war could not have been fought at all. The mind of man is a very wonderful thing and all that it may devise and create comes to nothing without the sustenance of earth. Out of the earth man gets his

food which sustains life. Out of the earth he also gets the wealth by which life is made comfortable and beautiful. Food and money were, then, the two essential things in the making of war. In regard to these, America played the most conspicuous part of any of the nations at war. It may be truthfully said that we fed the world, and we loaned such huge sums of money to our Allies that we became the banker in the cause for liberty. Let us look into the food question first.

I am not going to speak of food conservation. I have not only referred to it at other places in this narrative, but your own experiences have told you about it. There was another side to the food question even more important than the saving of it. That was the production of it, which had first to be, before it could be used or saved. And in the production of food, despite the great number of "war gardens" or the "farmerettes," the knowledge of the average person is quite limited. And I can only make you understand what the production of food meant by records and figures.

The United States, as I have said, had to produce enough food not only for consumption at home, but with sufficient surplus to feed its Allies and many neutral countries. When we entered the war in 1917 much was done to stimulate larger crops in all the staples, such as wheat, potatoes, corn and so forth. To do so two quite necessary facts had to be considered. The first was the question of seeds and the second was the increase of acreage. The Department of Agriculture purchased large supplies of

sound seeds which it distributed, large seed dealers were licensed by the Food Administration to control seed-prices and the number of seed growers' associations coöperated by selling at a fair price.

The next problem in production was to increase the acreage under cultivation. This was successfully done. In 1917, in the leading cereals, with potatoes, tobacco and cotton, there were 283,000,000 acres in crops, against 261,000,000 for the previous year; in 1918 there were 289,000,000 acres, against the five-year period before the war of 248,000,000, an increase of 41,000,000 acres over the pre-war period. The acreage in wheat during the second year of our participation in the war showed an increase of 3,500,000 acres over any previous record. These are very eloquent figures and showed to what extent the farmers of the country labored to fight the war with food.

With this immense yield of crops the farmers had their problems. One was financial, which was met by the Government and such resources as the Patriotic Farmers' Fund and the Farmers' Loan Board, from which the farmers might borrow money. The latter was supplied by a group of New York business men for the aid of small farmers in New York State, but it was typical of the wise insight into the farmers' need everywhere for the increase of crops. The financial problem, however, was not nearly so serious as the labor problem. How to harvest these immense crops when labor was so scarce was the farmer's greatest problem.

A very large amount of farm labor was drawn into

military service. The munitions factories and Government works offering high wages had taken a large number as well. The shortage of farm labor was critical both to the farmer and the country. The Government through the Departments of Agriculture and of Labor, in coöperation with agricultural colleges, State councils of defense, and so forth, organized a campaign for volunteer farm hands. The "Work or Fight" order was pressed to the limit. Soon college students, the Boys' Working Reserve, the Woman Land Army of America and other organizations and individuals responded. In addition business men, clerks and factory hands volunteered their vacation-time. A million of these made up a volunteer harvest army, and together with members of the organizations named above gathered in the great crops without a loss.

In the harvest fields millions and millions of Americans fought the war with food production.

The patriotism of the American people was in no way more clearly expressed than in the financial support of the Government in the war. The money to fight the war was raised in three ways: by enormously increased taxation, by the five Liberty Loans and the sale of War Saving Stamps. For the five Liberty Loans the people subscribed over twenty-one billion dollars. Taxation through to the year 1919 netted ten billion dollars, and the sale of War Saving Stamps yielded one billion and a half. These figures show nearly thirty-two billions of dollars given and loaned to the Government in behalf of freedom. Of this amount eight billion dollars was loaned by the United

States to eleven nations who were our Allies in the war. It was another splendid fighting record of the people of the country. The total war debt of the United States is twenty-one billion dollars, a low price for the saving of civilization.

CHAPTER V

VOLUNTEER WELFARE SERVICE

THE Great War, as you have often been told, was not a war of armies, but a war of nations. Even more than a war of nations, it was a war of peoples. In a sense there were no neutral individuals anywhere. Either a person believed that an autocratic or democratic form of government was best for a state. There are a great many people in the world who do not care about such a thing as liberty in its highest form, that is to say, they do not care about having a voice in making the laws they are obliged to obey so long as they are made comfortable. This was the case with the German people. The rulers of Germany were shrewd enough to make the people comfortable, to abolish poverty and to protect them by a state and industrial insurance against the want of old age. But not only in Germany, but in other countries as well, there were a great many people who believed that an autocratic form of government was best for many reasons. When the people of the world saw how an autocratic government made war, many of them changed their minds. Many of them learned for the first time how an autocratic government was run. The war also showed the people of such countries as Germany, Austria and Turkey what ad-

vantages and privileges the people in the democratic countries possessed who had a voice in making the laws of these countries, and were convinced that the blessings of democracy were far greater than the blessings of autocracy, even if they could be called so.

The people of the world, with these thoughts in mind, soon began to look upon the war not as an affair of their separate governments, but as an individual affair which affected their personal existence. So as never before in the history of the world the Great War enlisted the energy of every individual in all the nations that fought. The millions and millions of soldiers who fought in the trenches were but the advance guard, one might say, of the belligerents; the far greater number of millions, men, women, and even children, made up the main armies upon which victory depended and they fought for the most part with healing weapons of peace. A large part, of course, worked to supply the armies with munitions, with guns and high explosives so vitally necessary to the actual fighting. The munitions industry drew heavily upon civilian labor, and in the great manufacturing countries such as the United States, England, and France, it was one of the marvels which the people of these nations performed during the war.

There were a hundred different ways in which the people helped to fight. One could see that by the mere activity of one's neighbors, by recalling one's own efforts to be valuable and useful to the Government in the task of carrying on the war. But there were a number of organ-

izations that carried out a program of activities in support of the Government in war-time which accomplished deeds so substantial and vital that without them the Government would have found its task of victory very much more difficult and hazardous. These were the Volunteer Welfare Service organizations, such as the Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the Salvation Army, the Knights of Columbus, the Jewish Charitable Societies, and the American Library Asociation. I want to tell you something about the work these organizations accomplished, not the actual deeds of their workers, because it would take many volumes to do that, but something of the purpose that each had in serving the Government and the armies, and the records they made in fulfilling the purpose each had to perform.

The Red Cross and the Y. M. C. A. have been called the "right and left arm" of the army. You must understand that these as well as the other volunteer welfare service organizations neither looked for nor received any financial support from the Government. The funds with which they had to work were all volunteer contributions from the people. Most of the workers who performed the duties of these organizations, except the Red Cross, were trained and efficient individuals who gave up remunerative occupations and professions in civilian life and had to be paid for their services. The Red Cross was a wholly philanthropic society. It is called the "Mother of the World." All the workers from the officials down, from Mr. Henry P. Davidson, the famous banker, to the humblest worker, gave their services free. Membership in the Red Cross,

unlike the membership in the other organizations, was open to everybody in the nation, irrespective of race, creed or age. But all of these organizations, as I have said, were supported by the people's money and through them the people fought the war both at home and abroad.

The purposes of the Red Cross were to care for our soldiers and sailors wherever and whenever needed; to render assistance to the armies and peoples of the Allied countries and to help in the restitution of communities and the rebuilding of towns and villages devastated by the war. These cover a multitude of activities that it would take several pages just to mention. The American Red Cross carried its activities into France, Italy, Russia, Serbia, Roumania, Belgium, Armenia, Syria, Palestine, Egypt, Poland and Siberia. At the same time, it was doing extensive work at home for the army and navy. Some idea of what it did may be had from considering the work in France. There was reconstruction and relief in the devastated districts, the relief and care of refugees, relief and prevention of tuberculosis among the soldiers and underfed civilians, the care and nourishment of children to reduce infant mortality, the building of hospitals, their equipment and supplies, supplying and operating ambulances, the recreation and welfare of the American army, maintaining a canteen service and corps of doctors and nurses.

Even this mere tabulation scarcely gives a full grasp of what the Red Cross accomplished. Perhaps a few figures will help to emphasize the work of this organization.

It had 10,000 nurses in France. Every day 20,000 soldiers were served with food and hot drinks and comforts. Fully 5,000 tons of material were handled weekly, which kept 400 motor-trucks in constant operation. The Red Cross built eight hospitals in France for American soldiers that were entirely run by its members, besides a number of others for French civilians. It maintained a hospital at Evian where 200,000 children were treated. It furnished supplies of all kinds to 3,800 hospitals in France. What the Red Cross did in France it did in the other countries I named above on a smaller scale. It collected and spent enormous sums of money to carry on this work of mercy and healing and never was money given for a better cause or spent to such good purpose.

The purpose of the Red Cross, as I have showed, was relief work. The purpose of the Y. M. C. A. was largely recreation and amusement. It sought to improve the moral and physical condition of the army. The organization built "huts" near all of the army bases in France for the comfort and amusement of the soldiers. These huts contained a canteen room, a lecture hall, and smaller rooms for the meeting of classes or groups and were always situated near the athletic field where the soldiers took their recreation. In these huts addresses and moving picture shows were given for the entertainment of the troops. The work was in charge of secretaries, of whom there were over 600 in France. The Y. M. C. A. shipped tons and tons of athletic goods to France, besides great quantities of magazines and books. The daily attendance at the

Y. M. C. A. huts, the "little brown house with the Red Triangle," in France was 60,000. The activities of the Y. M. C. A. workers extended right up to the front line. The army greatly appreciated the work done by the Association.

The "Sallies," as the workers of the Salvation Army are called by the soldiers, were greatly endeared to the army in France for their absolute devotion under all sorts of conditions. Not only endeared, but the Salvation Army was beloved by the troops. In their work they carried out the true principles of democracy in sacrifice and devotion. It is said that four days after the German army entered Belgium to wreck and ruin, the Salvation Army entered to save and heal. The Salvation Army lassies made doughnuts by the thousands for the troops, which pleased the soldiers very much. In the Salvation Army ambulances over 100,000 wounded soldiers were taken from the battlefields to the dressing stations. The organization maintained nearly one hundred hotels for the use of soldiers and sailors. Hundreds of thousands of parcels of food and clothing were distributed among the troops. Not only did the Salvation Army perform these helpful and merciful duties, but fully 100,000 of the members of this Christian organization devoted to the ideals of peace fought in the trenches. The Salvation Army became the most popular body of welfare workers in the war.

The Knights of Columbus, a sectarian organization, was of great usefulness during the war. Its members were of the Catholic faith. The "K. of C." sustained a

clean, moral life among the troops. It supplied the soldiers with tens of thousands of religious articles. A great many huts were established by the society in France, with two thousand secretaries. It met the demand of a weekly call for stationery amounting to 3,000,000 sheets of writing-paper and 1,500,000 envelopes. Athletic goods by the ton were distributed. To show the extent of its services in supplying the soldiers with the articles that made them happy, a single order of the organization that was sent to France contained 50,000,000 cigarettes, 2,000,000 bouillon cubes, 2,000,000 packages of chewing-gum and 110 tons of sweet chocolates.

The Jewish Charitable Association was the other great sectarian organization that rendered immense service in the war. Its chief function was the relief of refugee Jews in the various countries that had a large Jewish population and that were overrun by the armies of the belligerents. It did wonderful relief work in Russia, Austria-Hungary, Greece, Turkey, Serbia, Roumania, Montenegro, Bulgaria, German Poland, France, Morocco and Palestine. In this work it provided the fleeing Jews with trains, guides, special transportation for the sick with physicians, and money, food, clothing and shelter. One of the special efforts made was in taking care of the education of children during the disrupted conditions of the war. It will have an important influence in the establishment of an independent Jewish state in Palestine, now that it is happily freed from the bondage of the Turks.

For the intellectual interests and mental entertainment

of the soldiers and sailors, the American Library Association did a really wonderful work. In France it worked in coöperation wtih the Y. M. C. A., Salvation Army, and Knights of Columbus. In the United States the Association erected thirty-six camp library buildings and forty-one large camp libraries were established. It collected over 4,000,000 books. Nearly 2,000,000 of these were shipped overseas and distributed from headquarters at Paris wherever they were needed. The mind of the soldier was quite as necessary to serve as his body, and it can be safely said that the work of the American Library Association performed a service that was an important contribution towards victory.

These Volunteer Welfare Service organizations made a bright page in the history of the war which some day, when it is fully written, will fill the people with pride and astonishment.

PART VI

THE GREAT PERSONALITIES OF THE WAR

CHAPTER I

THE RULERS

IT is interesting to know something about the personality and achievements of the men and women who, on account of their positions, figured most prominently in the war. Destiny has a strange way of dealing with men, and no affair in the world's history ever swept individuals so ruthlessly from public gaze as the World War. On the other hand, no event ever gave so many opportunities for men to make immortal names for themselves. The Great War was like an upheaval of nature, and for a time it was beyond the control of man. It shook men from their exalted positions, from honor and fame,—men who had commanded in the years before the war. One by one they went tumbling down. Others came and took their places; some lasted for a time and they, too, passed into the obscurity that swallows the unsuccessful. A number of individuals, few though they were, were made greater by their positions, and now and then the individual gave a luster to the position that he held. The Great War shook the very foundations of the world. Few things of the old order survived it. Much that civilization had boasted of was cast into a pile of ruins and the thrones of Europe were thrown on the scrap heap. Many a scepter

that had glittered in history, many a crown that had won the slavish obedience of generations are now tarnished and in fragments. Only four kings who were ruling when their nations entered the war were seated on their thrones when the war ended. The imperial dynasties of Russia, Germany, and Austria came to an end as a result of the war. Statesmen and generals who were in high office and supreme command when the war began had lost their power before the end and were all but forgotten. The men who brought victory were the men who were forged into greatness by the war itself.

I want to tell you a little about the men and women who were conspicuous in the war. I shall not tell you about what they did in the war because that has been touched upon in the course of this narrative, and the fuller records of their deeds have yet to be revealed. I merely want to give you a hint of their characters and a few brief facts about their lives. When you come at a later time to study their lives you will possess a kind of acquaintance with these men and women that will help you to understand their achievements in the war. In this chapter I shall sketch the rulers who were conspicuous for one reason or another during the war.

Most notable of all the kings in the war was Albert I of Belgium. History will regard him as the "Champion of Honor" because he refused to bargain with the Germans to save his crown or his nation from destruction. He was born in April, 1875, and succeeded his uncle, Leopold II, in 1909, as king of the Belgians. As Prince Al-

bert he visited the United States in 1898 and was much admired for his simple and democratic character. He had a deep interest in the world's work and the men who performed it. Once he lived in England as a newspaper reporter, and, so disguised, visited the shipbuilders and fishermen to learn the conditions under which they worked. In America he took a great interest in the railroad problems. He has a wide knowledge of mechanics and once remarked: "I never see a machine or a motor without wanting to know the *what* and *how* of it."

When Albert was still a prince he wished to know all about the great African colony of the Congo Free State, which he was to rule. So he spent three months in that tropical land, where he walked some fifteen hundred miles. The natives called him "Tall Man, Breaker of Stones," because it was his habit to indulge in this vigorous and useful exercise.

When a prince Albert married the Princess Elizabeth of Bavaria, the daughter of Duke Charles Theodor, a famous oculist, who devoted his time to serving the people in the hospitals of Munich. The Princess Elizabeth had a thorough training as a nurse and had studied medicine. She was a splendid helpmate for her royal husband. As king and queen they took a deep interest in the welfare of their subjects, from the common workman to the most intellectual and artistic of Belgians. They have always insisted that their children should have as companions the children of honest men and workers. Unlike so many

royal parents the royal children of Belgium have been taught that idleness is a vice.

When King Albert entered Brussels on November 22, 1918, after four years of exile and at the head of his army and the troops of the Allies, he was hailed by the people with great enthusiasm. He had not only won a military victory, but a moral triumph. He had preserved honor among kings.

Next to King Albert the most prominent monarch of the war was King George of England. King Albert is universally known and admired because of his noble behavior when his kingdom was crushed under the heel of war. Fate did not try King George in the same way. He was at the head of a mighty empire strong enough to defend itself, and so of course he neither suffered exile nor endured personal danger on the field of battle. But he proved himself in every way a king by fulfilling his royal duties to the utmost.

King George was born at Marlborough House, London, in June, 1865. He was the second son of the then Prince of Wales, afterwards King Edward VII. His elder brother, the Duke of Clarence, died in 1892, and as Duke of Cornwall George became heir to the throne, which he ascended in 1910. As the "sailor-prince" King George rose to the rank of admiral in the British navy, a position which he earned by brave and efficient work. When he was heir to the throne King George made a tour of the British colonies. After he became king he visited India

to be crowned emperor of that realm of the empire, something which no British monarch had done before him.

In 1893 the king married Princess Victoria Mary, the daughter of the Duke of Teck. Six children were born of this union, and the eldest was Edward Albert, the young Prince of Wales, who, after a notable career in the war, has made a visit to Canada and the United States. King George is noted for his intellectual qualities and his domestic affections. He is much beloved by his subjects, who affectionately refer to him as "Good old George." During the war he worked very hard. He visited hundreds of hospitals, inspected hundreds of munition plants, reviewed two million troops and presented over twelve thousand decorations. He is one of the very few kings who survived the war and holds a stronger place in the affection of his subjects than ever before.

A king whom the war taught the outside world to admire and respect is King Victor Emmanuel III of Italy, the patriot king and comrade of his troops on the battle fronts. When Victor Emmanuel came to the throne the Italians regarded him as a dreamer. But he proved himself to be a man of practical courage and action. He was born in November, 1869, and was the only son of King Humbert. In 1896 he married Princess Helene of Montenegro. He ascended the throne in 1900, when his father, King Humbert, was assassinated by an Italian anarchist.

In King Victor Emmanual the people of Italy found a true expression of their democratic sentiments. He was ever among his troops sympathizing with and encouraging

them and sharing their dangers. He worked as hard as any soldier or statesman for the good of Italy. Like King George of England, King Victor Emmanuel reigns but does not rule, and so true did he keep to this ideal all during the war that he came through it more beloved as a man and more trusted and admired as a king.

King Peter of Serbia as a ruler suffered defeat and exile like King Albert of Belgium. In his case the experience was much more pitiable because he was aged and infirm. King Peter Karageorgevitch was born in 1844 and elected (the Serbians, as the Poles, in former times elected their king) to the throne in 1903. For a while the other nations refused to recognize him because they thought that his agents had something to do with the assassination of King Alexandra and Queen Draga, who reigned before him. Under King Peter the Serbs prospered. He was intelligent and resourceful and encouraged education among the people. Five months before the war began King Peter gave up the throne because of his age. But he took up the duties of kingship again to revive the spirit of the army for the war; the soldiers welcomed him with enthusiasm and fought with great bravery and endurance under his leadership. When Serbia was crushed, King Peter went into exile in Italy, a man broken in mind and body. When the war was victoriously ended and the new Jugo-Slav state was founded by the Peace Conference, of which Serbia was the cornerstone, the heir to King Peter's throne, Prince Alexander, was made regent owing to the infirmity of his father.

Two women rulers became very prominent because of the war, though for very different reasons. Only one of these women ruled in her own right, the Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide of Luxemburg. The other was Queen Marie of Roumania, the consort of King Ferdinand I. Grand Duchess Marie Adelaide is prominent by the force of circumstances rather than by any notable deeds. The little duchy over which she ruled, with a population less than that of the city of Buffalo, was too small to resist in the slightest the German invasion. The young sovereign met the German troops at the frontier and protested against the invasion, but that was the extent of her resistance. After that she was a prisoner in her own capital all through the war. After the war she was deposed by the Luxemburgers and her younger sister succeeded to the ducal throne. Marie Adelaide, as so many of the Luxemburgers, belonged to the Catholic faith. She was extremely pious. The effect of her character upon the court was to make its manners puritanic and its etiquette very rigid. This helpless young girl, so little known to the great world before the war, was suddenly flashed upon the very center of the stage to linger for a moment, a tragic figure, and then be swept away in mystery. With one brave act to her credit she will be remembered with more pity than admiration in the future.

Queen Marie of Roumania in popular estimation has a place similar to that of King Albert of Belgium. Her fame is not nearly so universal. The deeds for which she has won the adoration of her people and the admiration

of Europe are quite different from those of the Belgian monarch. This beautiful queen endured the agony of her country's invasion and enslavement with a spirit that was heroic. But ever since she came to the throne with her husband, Ferdinand, in 1914, she has strongly influenced the national life of Roumania. She associated herself with the life and traditions of the people. The local festivals were kept alive by her, and, like Carmen Sylva, the queen who preceded her on the throne, she collected and preserved the legends and ballads of the country. She gave her patronage to the national theater, where only the plays of native writers are performed. During the war Queen Marie went freely among the wounded and sick, nursing them and caring for their wants. The peasants call her a saint and even those most dangerously stricken with typhus fever would insist upon kissing her hand. She never refused this devotion, though it put her in great danger of her life. She was a noble woman as well as a noble queen.

The President of the French Republic, Raymond Poincaré, was perhaps less in the public eye of the world than the rulers of the other great powers. Circumstances perhaps did not permit that he should be, as were the governmental and military officials who carried on the war for France in behalf of the people. The President of the French Republic exercised nothing like the personal power that was exercised by the President of the United States during the war. But M. Poincaré is a very notable and distinguished personage.

He was born in 1863 at Bar-le-Duc and had his early

education at the Lycee, where he took all of the prizes. While very young he became a soldier and rose to be a captain in the Chasseurs. At twenty he established himself in Paris as an *avocat*. In 1887 he was elected a Deputy for the Department of the Meuse. He has held several important cabinet positions. In 1913 he was elected President of the French Republic. His administration has been full of brilliant achievements. M. Poincaré is a scholar and a man of letters.

All that Mr. Wilson has been in the war is public history. The future historian will have a great deal to say about the motives that prompted his acts. What the nation and the world at large scarcely realized in the confusion and controversy of the war and the making of peace that followed is, that a little less than fifteen years ago, Mr. Wilson was a historian and college president. As the head of Princeton University he was well-nigh obscure to the world that has since come to know him as the President of the United States.

Woodrow Wilson was born in Virginia in December, 1856, and graduated from Princeton and later from the law school of the University of Virginia. He practiced law in Atlanta, Georgia, from which he passed to the profession of teaching. In 1902 he was elected president of Princeton University and resigned in 1910. In 1911 Mr. Wilson was elected governor of New Jersey, from which office he resigned in 1913 to enter the White House and take up his duties as President of the United States. Mr. Wilson is the author of many works on history and juris-

prudence. He was one of the American Peace Commissioners at the Peace Conference at Paris, where he was instrumental, as the chief promoter, in securing a covenant for a League of Nations, intended to prevent war in the future. For this effort Mr. Wilson has been called an idealist and a visionary. This, as well as a number of other puzzling features about Mr. Wilson's character and acts, time alone can solve.

No man has been more written about, whose character and deeds have been more often and variously discussed than Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States. No single individual in the course of the war has exercised more personal power. No one has received from his peers among the potentates of nations the honor that he has received nor from the common people the acclaim that welcomed his visit to Europe. He has supplied from the beginning of the war the phrases that men have repeated in the council chamber, in the street, in the home and on the battlefield. He was the man whose will all nations aimed to satisfy.

CHAPTER II

THE PRIME MINISTERS

THE burden of the war fell more heavily upon the shoulders of two types of men than upon any other. One type was at the head of the civil government of the various countries and the other was at the head of the armies in the field. I refer to the prime ministers and the generals. Our system of government is quite different from that of the European countries. Our President is the chief executive and has a cabinet which is called his "official family." He consults the members of the cabinet upon all matters pertaining to the domestic and foreign affairs of the nation. The cabinet members, who are each at the head of a governmental department such as the treasury, the army, the navy, and so forth, are responsible only to the President and are appointed for the term that he holds office. In England, France, Italy, and the other European countries associated with us in the war, the cabinet which is formed and presided over by the first, or prime minister, is responsible to the Parliament of the country. It may be voted out of office by the Parliament on any measure that is brought up for consideration and at any time. In almost every European country on the Allied side, whether a monarchy or republic, the

ruler so-called, whether king or president, reigns but does not rule. The actual ruler of the country is the Prime Minister, who becomes so by the grace of the monarch or chief executive, who is expressing the will of the people. It was to the Prime Ministers, then, that the people of the Allied countries looked to win the war.

I am not going to tell you about all of the Prime Ministers that held office in the Allied countries during the war. Some countries had more than others during the four years of the conflict. I am not going to tell you about them because they failed in the opportunity they had to conduct the war successfully. For instance, Mr. Asquith, who was Prime Minister of England when the war started, had to give way to Mr. Lloyd George because of his failure to do a number of things that would have helped to win the war. The same may be said of M. Viviani, M. Painlevé and other Prime Ministers of France, all of whom had to give way for M. Clemenceau, who was strong and clever enough to do just the right things that brought victory. So I am only going to tell you a little about the Prime Ministers who came into power when things looked bad for their countries and brought them through to victory. In doing this they did more than help the particular country that they happened to belong to; they labored for the most precious heritage of modern civilization, the freedom and security of national life everywhere.

The men whose lives I shall sketch briefly are David Lloyd George of England, Georges Clemenceau of France, Vittorio Orlando of Italy, and Eleutherios Veni-

zelos of Greece. Here are the victorious Prime Ministers of three great Powers and one small state, and you will no doubt wonder why M. Venizelos of Greece is included. You will learn why when I come to tell you about him. Before I begin to write about David Lloyd George, I wish to mention another Prime Minister who was in power when the war began. This was M. Sazonof of Russia, a zealous and honest patriot, who ably represented Russia in the negotiations that preceded the outbreak of the war and who guided the empire through the conflict until the Russian Revolution. Perhaps more than any fallen Prime Minister he deserves to be remembered for his efforts in behalf of the Allied cause.

The most famous among the Prime Ministers of the war is David Lloyd George, the "little fighting Welshman." The rise of this man has been one of the most remarkable in the political history of this century. He was the son of poor Welsh parents, born in Manchester, England, in January, 1863. His father died when he was a little boy and he was taken with his mother to live with an uncle, who was a shoemaker in a little village in North Wales. By hard labor and saving the uncle was able to educate his nephew to be a solicitor. After two years of successful practice young David Lloyd George was elected to Parliament from his home district.

Mr. Lloyd George's career in Parliament was full of bold and daring progress. Though a member of the Liberal Party he was extremely radical in his views and opinions. As a lad he had been touched by the conditions of

the workingman and he sought from the beginning of his political career to work for laws in behalf of the masses of the people. He wanted, and he succeeded, in making "democracy safe for England." So much did he demand in this respect that he was regarded as a rank socialist and was thoroughly hated by the aristocracy of Great Britain. He was very unpopular during the Boer War, when his life was often threatened for condemning the English government for conducting a war of conquest against a weak people. The indomitable qualities of such a man as Lloyd George would let nothing stand in the way of his progress.

He soon became a member of the Cabinet of Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman. This far-seeing statesman saw in the young Welshman a man of mettle and ideas. Though he was given a minor office, that of the President of the Board of Trade, he soon justified Campbell-Bannerman's faith by settling a labor crisis which prevented a general railroad strike all over Great Britain. The success of this settlement had saved the country a great economic loss and the people began to notice the constructive talents of the young Welshman. When Mr. Asquith succeeded Campbell-Bannerman, who died in 1908, he made Mr. Lloyd George the Chancellor of the Exchequer, that is, Minister of Finance, which was the office next in importance to that of the Prime Minister himself. It was this cabinet position that Mr. Lloyd held when the war began.

It was this doughty Welshman, almost alone, who saw things going wrong in the first year or two of the war and,

to set them right, he began attacking conditions left and right. Munitions was one of the things that was wrong, in Mr. Lloyd George's opinion. His criticism of the munitions supply became so frank and insistent that the Government so much as said, "Well, make them right." So they created a new Cabinet position and made him Minister of Munitions. He succeeded so well with this task that when Lord Kitchener, who was Minister of War, was lost at sea, the Government made him the new Minister of War. And in this position he also succeeded so well that when the nation realized that it needed a strong and determined man as Prime Minister to pilot the country to victory, King George, expressing the will of his subjects, asked Mr. Lloyd George to take Mr. Asquith's place and conduct the war. This was in December, 1916.

As Prime Minister Mr. Lloyd George brought the British empire safely and successfully through the war. He achieved three big things which helped to bring victory. He created a special War Council made up of men free from governmental duties who were given supreme control in managing the nation's business during the war. He created an Imperial War Cabinet in which all of Great Britain's colonies were represented. And he fought for and achieved unity of military command among the Allies. This last was brought about in a daring manner which threatened his downfall. As a stepping-stone to unity of military command he created the Supreme War Council of the Allies, and at one of its sessions at Paris he made the famous "brutally frank" speech in criticism of his coun-

try's attitude towards the conduct of the war. All Parliament and England was aroused by his words. But he went home from Paris and met his critics with a daring speech. Once more the "little fighting Welshman" won. On that occasion he said, "I made up my mind to take risks and I took them, to arouse public sentiment, not here merely, but in France, in Italy, and in America. It is not easy to rouse public opinion. I may know nothing of military strategy, but I do know something of political strategy. To raise a row is the only way to get a job through. I determined to make a disagreeable speech that would force everybody to talk about this scheme, and they have talked about it. The result is that America is in, Italy is in, France is in, Britain is in, and public opinion is in, and that is vital." It was the Paris speech to which Mr. Lloyd George referred in Parliament, that led to the selection of General Foch as Commander-in-Chief of all the Allies' military forces. How important this selection was in winning the war you all know who have read this narrative. No Prime Minister deserves more credit for his work in behalf of victory than belongs to this remarkable and energetic Welshman, David Lloyd George.

There is a similarity of character between David Lloyd George and Georges Clemenceau. Both men forged their way to eminence by sheer personal ability. Both are fighters. Both have labored in behalf of the people's interest. As England called Lloyd George to the helm of affairs to drive and guide the nation to victory, so did France call

Georges Clemenceau to the helm of affairs to guide the French to victory.

Clemenceau is called "The Tiger," and well deserves the name. He has "torn, clawed and bitten his way into power." There are other names by which he is known. They call him "The Destroyer of Ministries," and "The Stormy Petrel of French Politics." All through his long political career he has destroyed ministries and politicians. It was through destruction that he came at last to save France. The country had to get rid of politicians and traitors who were hampering the way to victory. It was necessary for the Government to have an absolutely free hand to carry on the war successfully. There was no man in sight who seemed to have the power to destroy the enemies at home. Suddenly the people remembered Clemenceau and called for "The Tiger." President Poincaré, who in former days had suffered from the bitter attacks of Clemenceau, asked him to become Prime Minister and save France from her enemies within and without. It was in 1917 that Clemenceau, in the fullness of age but with the vigor and audacity of a young man, began the most wonderful period of his career.

Clemenceau was born in the little village of Mouillion-en-Pareds in La Vandée, in September, 1841. He came of five generations of doctors and was himself sent to Paris at the age of nineteen to study medicine. La Vandée was in those days the hotbed of Royalism, and it is strange that it should give to France her most ardent Republican patriot. As a boy and all through his long life it was

Clemenceau's purpose to work for the France that he loved with a deep passion. In 1865 Clemenceau came to America, at first living in New York, where he practiced medicine but spent most of his time, as he says, reading and studying in the old Astor Library. Later he taught in a Miss Aitken's school for young ladies at Stamford, Connecticut. Here he met a young lady, Miss Mary Plummer, who became his wife. In 1870 Clemenceau, with his American wife, was back in France. It was the year of the Franco-Prussian War and young Clemenceau was appointed Mayor of Montmartre, a district of Paris. The following year he was elected a Deputy to the National Assembly, in which he strongly opposed the Treaty of Peace with Prussia that robbed France of Alsace and Lorraine. From 1871 to 1876 Clemenceau was a member of the Paris Municipal Council and became its president. In 1876 he was again elected a Deputy to the National Assembly from the district of Montmartre and became the leader of the radical element of politicians. He had now definitely given up the practice of medicine and threw all his energies into politics and journalism. His first publication was a daily paper, *La Justice,* which he established in 1880. In addition to journalism, Clemenceau became a man of letters and wrote novels and plays. These books were clever, but it is as a journalist that his writings will be remembered longest. His journals were the weapons with which he attacked his opponents in political life. The most famous of his publications was "L'Homme Libre" (The Free Man), which was started in 1912. In the first

years of the war Clemenceau brilliantly and fearlessly attacked through this publication all the forces that were harmful to France, both at home and abroad.

Clemenceau was elected a member of the French Senate in 1902, and in 1906 was raised to a position in the Cabinet, and in the same year became Prime Minister. He fell from power in 1908 and the following years were his most fruitful period as a wrecker of ministries.

Much has been written about Clemenceau's life and personality. A great deal of it is legendary. In his youth he was fond of dueling. He delighted to make political enemies. He is said to retire by ten o'clock every night but is up at three in the morning to begin a long and hard day's work. Upon one thing everybody is agreed and that is his deep and passionate love of France. Her glory, her power, her beauty, these are the qualities of his country that he venerates and labors for. It was as much with these as for these that he won victory.

A very great man is Eleutherios Venizelos, the Prime Minister of Greece. In spite of the fact that he was connected with a small state he had one of the most difficult tasks of any of the statesmen in the war. How he finally triumphed over circumstances and brought Greece to victory on the side of the Allies you already know. Venizelos is the great man of the Balkans. In fact he is one of the great men of Europe, and it is of immense credit to his character and ability for one to be able to say this of him, chiefly because his energies have been restricted to the upbuilding of a small state. It must not be forgotten, how-

ever, that this small state, Greece, has the most glorious traditions of any country in history for art, literature and philosophy. These are enough to inspire a man to greatness.

M. Venizelos is a native of Crete, an island in the Mediterranean Sea, about eighty miles off the coast of Greece. The island was under Turkish rule and Venizelos organized a rebellion and threw off the Turkish yoke. Then he fought to have Crete made a part of the Greek nation. In this he succeeded too. In 1909 Venizelos went to Athens and his career of rebuilding Greece began. He was soon made the Prime Minister. This wonderful man in five years' time had practically made a new nation of his beloved Greece. He did it by solid constructive work. He wiped craft out of political life and strengthened through many reforms the University of Athens. More than two hundred municipal schools were established by him. He increased the efficiency of the police, postal and telegraph services. He organized a new ministry in the Cabinet which dealt with trade, industry and agriculture. And in keeping with modern conditions of labor he established the eight-hour day for the workingman.

All of these are domestic reforms but Venizelos knew that Greece could not rise to an honorable and respected place among the states of Europe unless her national life was progressive. This accomplished, he turned to the broader field of international affairs. Much of the territory that had belonged to ancient Greece he saw under the rule of Turkey. He desired to regain these lands that

Greece might be greater and possessed of some of her ancient glory. He also knew that the other small Balkan states, Serbia and Bulgaria, wanted to free the Balkan Peninsula of Turkish influence. So Venizelos organized the Balkan League to drive the Turks back into Asia and regain the lands that were inhabited by its kin. The first Balkan War was fought, Turkey defeated, and at last it looked as if the Balkans would settle down to peace and progressive existence. But alas, what had been an honest ambition on the part of the Greek statesman turned out otherwise. I have already told you in this narrative how the Balkans furnished the causes of the World War. In telling you something of the life of Venizelos I have showed you how his purposes, honest and patriotic, were behind the causes of the great conflict. No one can blame Venizelos for what happened. His record in the war is evidence enough of his upright and able character. The fruits of his own success gave him problems enough to deal with. He was often humiliated and defeated, but in the end came through as one of the great victorious Prime Ministers of the War.

CHAPTER III

THE GENERALS

MORE is known of what the great generals of the Allied armies achieved in the war than was known of them before the war. Of all the men who had an important part in the great conflict the generals of the armies had the most responsible as well as the most exacting duties to perform. Yet there were no men more cool, calm and collected than these warriors. With but very few exceptions the Allied generals were unknown to the world at large before the war. Even in their respective countries these men were scarcely known outside of the inner circles of the army. Lord Kitchener was perhaps the most famous of the Allied soldiers in August, 1914. But he did not command in the field. England made him the Minister of War because his great organizing ability was needed to build a large army to fight the Germans. Of the men who actually directed operations on the field of battle there were none who had a reputation equal to Kitchener's. Nearly all the French generals were unknown men. But they had the genius of great soldiers in them. Many of them felt certain that a great war with Germany was coming and had prepared themselves for it. The French have always been a great military people.

The genius of warfare is in the blood of the Frenchmen and that is the reason France produced so many generals of the first rank in the war. Generals Gouraud, Mangin, Castelnau, Pau, Fayolle, D'Esperey, and others continued the traditions of the French military genius, and I am sorry that I cannot stop to tell you something of their lives. I shall take three of the most famous of these Frenchmen as typical illustrations. These three men are the greatest soldiers that the war produced. They are heroes every one. They are the three marshals of France, Joffre, Pétain and Foch. The first, as you know, is the hero of the Battle of the Marne, the second is the hero of Verdun, and the third, one of the world's greatest soldiers of all time, was the hero in every battle he fought from the Battle of Nancy to the final great battle when he crushed the proud military might of the German empire.

Joseph Jacques Césaire Joffre was born in southern France in 1852, the son of a cooper. He attended the Polytechnic School at Paris and fought bravely when the Prussians besieged the city in 1870. For his fine work he was promoted to a captaincy. Joffre's work in the army was conscientious. He has served in French China, in Madasgascar, in Africa, and various other far-away places. He rose not rapidly but steadily in rank and in 1911 was chief of staff of the French army. When the war broke out he was made commander-in-chief of the French armies.

"Papa Joffre," as the great soldier is affectionately called by his troops, is very methodical and self-possessed.

All his faculties are well-balanced. He has none of the feverish ambition associated with unusual gifts, but is simple and a great lover of home life. He exerts a remarkable power over his men but it is through the strength and confidence he inspires in them. They have faith that he would never fail them. His quiet habits, his steady, wide blue eyes are enough to command love and obedience.

How happy would have been his humble father, the cooper, could he have lived to see the son whose early career he watched and cherished, become a marshal of France, the first marshal that had been created in the French army for nearly half a century! He was made a marshal in 1916, when he turned the command of the armies over to General Nivelle. Early in the spring of 1917 Marshal Joffre visited the United States with the French War Mission, and was everywhere greeted with admiration and honor.

Henri Philippe Pétain, Marshal of France and commander-in-chief of the armies of France made one of the most brilliant reputations of any soldier in the war. Little is known of Pétain's early life before the war. He was only a colonel when the war began, and was chiefly known before as a lecturer in the War College. In those days he kept very much to himself and had practically no intimates. The war brought out of him the best and highest elements of a great soldier. Pétain has a very simple character, which is common, it should be noted, among the great soldiers of France. He always concentrates his strength upon the task in hand. Absolutely emotionless he is more

like a machine than a man. His soldiers both feared and respected him. He has much of the compelling power that was a mystery but which made men do whatever he commanded. Pétain leapt to fame as the defender of Verdun. It was his order, "They shall not pass!" which ran through the trenches and stiffened the determination of every French soldier to oppose his body as a wall against the German attack.

Everybody is agreed that the greatest soldier of the war is Ferdinand Foch. This man of glorious achievements was born in October, 1851, in the Department of the Hautes in the Pyrenees not very far from the birthplace of Marshal Joffre. He was a subaltern in the Franco-Prussian War and rose rapidly to the rank of Brigadier-General. He became the director of the École de la Guerre where his lectures on military strategy had a deep and lasting influence upon the students. He is the author of two books on military science which attracted wide attention in Germany before the war and have since been very widely quoted. His military principles are based upon the strategy of Napoleon who is an idol of Marshal Foch. The idea underlying his principles is that a general must act according to circumstances, and in so acting first to secure the safety of his army. But even deeper than this principle is Marshal Foch's belief that war is a passionate drama in which moral force and spiritual qualities play an important part.

No man in France was less surprised than Marshal Foch when war came in 1914. As a theorist he had won a

fine reputation but the war gave him an opportunity to put his theories into practice. The war was not many months old when he proved greater in the practice of his theories than in the teaching of them. He soon came to be recognized in all the Allied countries by what Joffre called him, "The finest strategist in Europe."

Foch was created a marshal in 1918. He is a devout Catholic. In spite of a certain austerity of character he is a man of rare physical grace and charm. The soldiers of high rank of all the Allied countries have a deep admiration for his genius and personality. One and all accepted his leadership in March, 1918, as the one man who could turn the tide of German victories and bring triumph to the Allied cause.

Among the English generals reference must be made to two who rendered valuable service to their country, though both passed from public view before the war was over. Death overtook one, Lord Kitchener, in an accident at sea, and the other, Lord French, was relieved of his command of the British Expeditionary Force.

Lord Kitchener was born in Ireland in 1850 and as a student was regarded as dull in all of his studies except mathematics. He won his commission as a lieutenant in the Royal Engineers. He was appointed to a post in Egypt where he made a name for himself building railroads and organizing the business end of war. He had seen service in Africa, India and Egypt, notably in the Boer War, when he was Lord Roberts' right hand man. He won a title for taking Khartoum where General Gor-

don was besieged. He was too late to save Gordon but he cleared the Soudan of rebels and brought it under the control of Egypt. When the war broke out Kitchener was made Minister of War and organized England's great civilian army. Though a man of silent nature, he had an iron will that surmounted all obstacles that stood in his way. He was a hard worker and when a deed was to be done drove his men without mercy. In spite of all he was very popular with the masses of the English people. A stern soldier, he found a watery grave.

Lord French was born at Ripple Vale, England, in 1852, and is of Irish extraction. He has the Irishman's quick temper. He first joined the navy, but left it for the army. He has seen much active service both in Egypt and South Africa. Lord French has an attractive personality and is much liked by his officers and troops. His work in France in command of the first expeditionary force was notable for the retreat from Mons during the latter days of August and the early days of September of 1914. His generalship on this retreat in which he brought his army, fighting doggedly all the way, out of the jaws of the German trap, has won the admiration of military writers. There has been much controversy about the reasons for which he lost his command. Many believed it was due to political enemies at home. At all events he deserves much credit for the part he played in the early months of the war.

General Sir Douglas Haig who was raised to the rank of a Field Marshal during the war is the highest type of

the efficient modern soldier. He was one of Lord French's lieutenants when the war began and succeeded him in supreme command of the British armies. General Haig is a Scotchman with all the methodical qualities of that type. He never made a move without working out in detail beforehand all the problems that were involved. His career, like his conduct of the war, has been a matter of patient progress. General Haig is a man of great personal distinction, being reserved and dignified in bearing. During the war wherever his headquarters were moved a cow was taken too, which supplied him with fresh pure milk of which he is very fond. For his services in leading the British army to victory the English Government has expressed its appreciation by creating him an earl, and Parliament has voted him a large sum of money to maintain the dignity of his new position.

Two British generals who stand out more romantically against the background of the war than any of the others are Sir Frederick Stanley Maude who captured Bagdad, the ancient city of the Arabian Nights, and Sir Edmund Allenby who captured Jerusalem, the Sacred City of the Bible. These picturesque far-off campaigns were full of hardships and mysteries that will one day be told in thrilling stories. There was no more beloved officer in the British army than General Maude. Yet he was a hard taskmaster who got the utmost out of his officers and men without much fuss. He had a habit of saying nothing about the things that were done right, but of the things that were done wrong he would speak in a way that the

men did not soon forget. He had a hard campaign up the Tigris to Bagdad and he won because of his iron will and determination. He died as you know, of cholera in the city of golden domes and minarets on November 18, 1917.

General Allenby was taken from the western front in June, 1917, to conduct the campaign in Palestine. After going to school at Haileybury College where he cultivated a taste for literature, Allenby became a young officer of the dragoons. His first active service was in Africa at the age of twenty-three. He fought in the Zulu campaign of 1888, and in the Boer War. General Allenby has all the fine personal traits of the English scholar and gentleman.

Italy had many fine soldiers in the war but only two of her commanders are fairly well known to the general public. Count Cadorna was commander-in-chief of the Italian armies from Italy's entry into the war until the disaster of Caporetto, when he was succeeded by General Armando Diaz who led the troops to victory. Cadorna held his command longer than any of the Allied generals who began the war. Cadorna was born on the border of Lago Maggiore between Lombardy and Britton. He, too, like so many of the Latin generals, has a silent nature and is unmoved by success. His devotion to Italy is intense. He has a touch of humor in his nature that is delightful.

Among the Russian generals there are two who possessed undoubted military genius. Both men were swept away by the forces of the Russian Revolution though one of them, the Grand Duke Nicholas, had been deposed

for the defeats of the Russian armies in Poland. Little was known of Grand Duke Nicholas before the war. He fought in the Russo-Japanese War and afterwards was given the task of reorganizing the Russian army. The fine showing made by the Czar's troops during the first year of the war is an evidence of how well he did his task. The Grand Duke had two sides to his nature. One was the affable and highly cultivated Russian aristocrat, who was a charming companion. The other was the soldier, the cold, self-sufficient man of action who would send a hundred thousand men to death without the least concern so that he attained his end. He exercised the severest discipline among the troops. They believed, however, in his ability and trusted him entirely. He had the knack of making quick decisions which is a great virtue in a soldier. The Grand Duke was an ardent patriot and labored hard for the good of Russia, but he could not stay the flood of revolution which swept himself and his cousin, the Czar, and all the aristocrats away.

General Brusiloff was the other Russian commander with high military talents. He also was an aristocrat, who as a young cavalry man attracted the attention of Grand Duke Nicholas, who advanced him rapidly in the army. At the outbreak of the war Brusiloff had his choice of joining an exclusive regiment of guards but he preferred to attach himself to the Caucasus Cavalry Regiment. He was a regular dictator and would not permit even his high officers to contradict him. He was placed in supreme command of the Revolutionary Army, a rather unusual ap-

pointment owing to his aristocratic connections, but the people trusted and admired him.

The commander-in-chief of the American Expeditionary Forces, John Joseph Pershing, was born at Laclede, Lynn County, Mo., September 13, 1860. It should be noted that it was on September 13, 1918, that the first independent operation of the American army in France was made in the St. Mihiel offensive. General Pershing's birthday in 1918 will always be memorable for him and the American people.

The General's ancestors, John and Frederick Pershing, came from France in 1749, and settled in Pennsylvania. As a youth Pershing worked on his father's farm, and afterwards taught school for a while at Prairie Mount, Chariton County, Missouri. He won the first competitive examination for a cadetship at West Point in the Tenth Missouri District. He graduated in 1886 as second lieutenant in the Sixth United States Cavalry.

As a young officer Pershing fought in the Indian campaigns in New Mexico, Arizona and Dakota. In 1898, in the Spanish-American War, Pershing commanded the colored troops of the Tenth Cavalry who fought so heroically at Santiago. After the Spanish War Pershing organized and was chief of the Bureau of Insular Affairs. His next active service was in the Philippines, commanding the military operations against the Moros in central Mindanao. During the Russo-Japanese War Pershing was military attaché in Japan and was with General Kuroki's army in the Manchurian campaign. Returning

to the Philippines in 1906 Pershing became commander of the Department of Mindanao and Governor of Poro Province, and resuming his operations against the Moros finally and completely subdued them near Bagsag in June, 1913.

Pershing next returned to the United States to command the Eighth Brigade at the Presidio, San Francisco, California. It was here that the General's wife and three daughters were burned to death in a fire that took place on August 27, 1915.

The General's next duty was on the Mexican border. He commanded the patrol in the El Paso district, and later, in March, 1916, led the American troops across the border in pursuit of Villa.

When the United States declared war against Germany Pershing was given the command of the American Expeditionary Forces, with the rank of a full general. With his staff he reached Europe in June, 1917. He is the only supreme commander among the belligerents on either side who began and ended the war in that position. After more than two years abroad General Pershing returned home on September 8, 1919, and was welcomed at New York by the people as no military hero has ever been welcomed in the nation's history. On Wednesday, September 10th, General Pershing led the men of the First Division in a great parade down New York's famous Fifth Avenue amidst the thunderous plaudits of an immense throng. An incident of this parade marks the simple greatness of Pershing's character. The venerable and

heroic Cardinal Mercier of Belgium, who had just landed at New York on his visit to America, was watching the parade from a reviewing stand with the dignitaries of the church and state. When General Pershing rode opposite to where the Cardinal stood, he halted the procession, dismounted from his horse, walked over to the reviewing stand and greeted the venerable prelate. It was the homage paid by one great man to another, and for all the world to witness.

While abroad General Pershing received many honors and decorations from the Allied Governments, the most notable being the Star and Ribbon of the Legion of Honor bestowed by France. He is the only American soldier to receive this decoration. His own country has fully appreciated his services. On his arrival home Secretary of War Newton D. Baker met the commander-in-chief as he came ashore and presented him with his commission as a full general which Congress had voted him, and which he is the fifth soldier in the history of America to receive after Washington, Grant, Sherman and Sheridan.

CHAPTER IV

THE ADMIRALS

YOU know what an active but silent part the navy played in the war. We know little yet in detail of the great work the seamen did in all those four years of dangerous labors. It can be said of the navies of all the Allied nations that they did their share towards victory and did it well. They got very little praise and no celebrations, but the seaman can well say that without his help the war could not have been won.

The naval battles of the war were few, and only one was of major importance, but every man on every ship that fought, or convoyed troopships, that swept mine fields or hunted submarines was a hero. And the men who commanded these unknown heroes were gallant sailors too, though they wore the gold braid and insignia of high rank. All of these admirals are proud of the fact that they are sailors first and admirals afterwards. I am going to give you an impression of the four admirals who were the most famous during the war. Two of these are Englishmen and two Americans.

Admiral Sir David Beatty, to whom the German Fleet surrendered, is the embodiment of the typical naval hero of English history. Admiral Beatty was once described

by a seaman as a man with the spirit of Sir Francis Drake; a man with flashing eyes and "a soul like a North Sea storm." In the Battle of Jutland he proved that this characterization was true. He succeeded Admiral Jellicoe in command of the Grand Fleet after the Battle of Jutland. When the German admiral visited Beatty to arrange for the surrender of the entire German navy, he presented him with a petition asking that the crews should be well treated by the British. Admiral Beatty after looking at the petition tore it up and addressing the German said, "Tell them they are coming to England, that will be enough." This is the spirit of the British navy, the spirit of fight hard and fair play. No admiral embodied that spirit more fully than the young and dashing David Beatty with the "soul like a North Sea storm."

To Admiral Jellicoe goes the credit of building up the efficiency of the Grand Fleet. He has, it has been said, in his nature the "candor of the sea." How he fought the Battle of Jutland you have been told, and if he has the candor of the sea he also has the caution of a thoughtful patriot. After turning over the command of the Grand Fleet to Sir David Beatty, Admiral Jellicoe was made First Lord of the Admiralty with the policy and strategy of the navy under his direction. He did splendid service in this position in curbing the submarine warfare. The triumph of the British navy in the war was largely due to these two admirals.

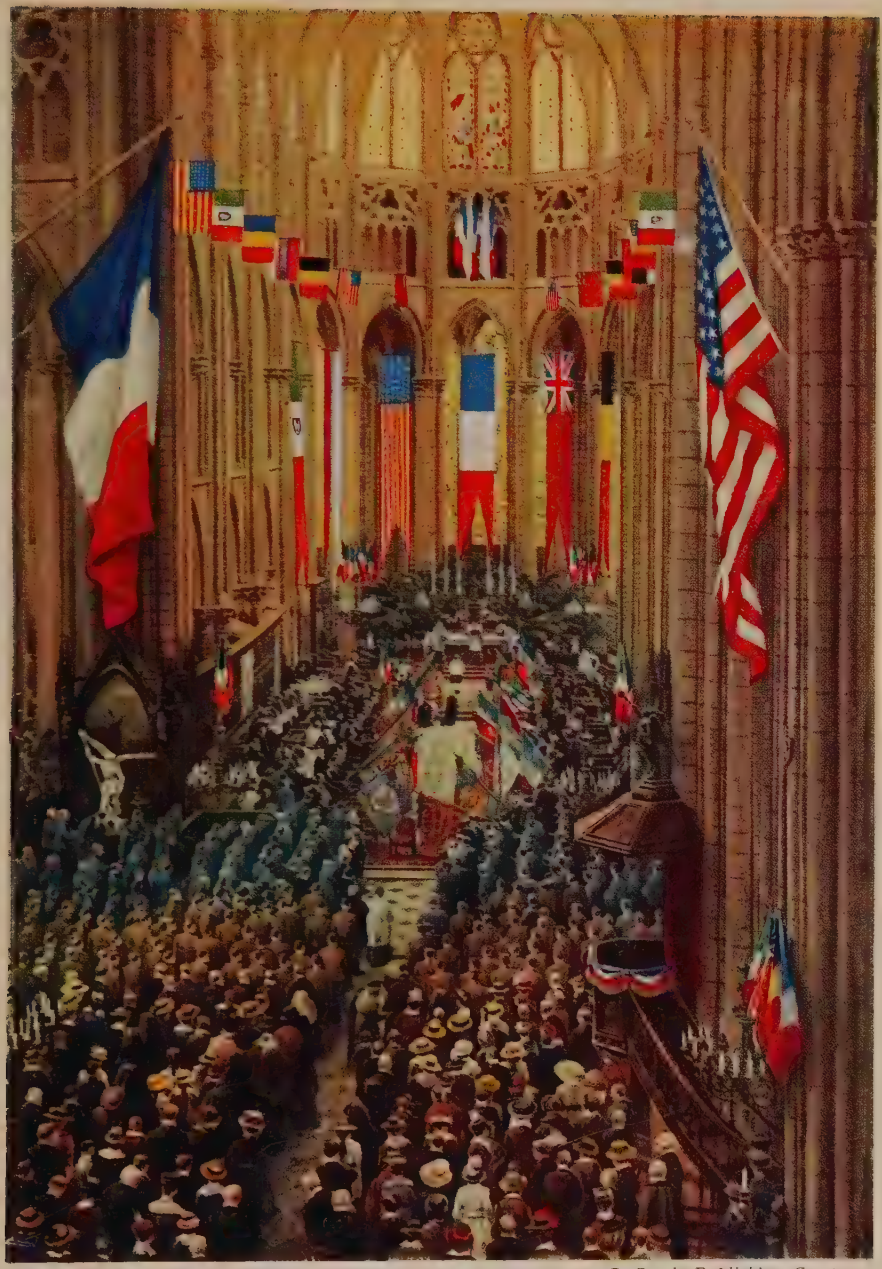
America's contribution to the naval supremacy of the Allies was much more considerable than is generally

known. Along the French coast as well as in the North Sea, and off the west coast of Ireland, our battleships and destroyers did valiant service of many kinds. The admiral in supreme command of the American navy in European waters was Admiral William S. Sims. The superiority of gunnery in the American navy is due to his persistent plea for target practice. A farmer's son, Admiral Sims graduated from the Naval Academy at Annapolis in 1880. He was appointed instructor of target practice and was allowed to use his own system in teaching. After seven years as an instructor of target practice he was given a post with the Bureau of Navigation. In 1913 he was given the command of the Atlantic Fleet. He made a splendid reputation in Europe during the war and was much liked for his charming personal qualities.

Admiral Hugh Rodman who has commanded four different battleship divisions of the Atlantic Fleet is a very able officer who has the confidence of his superiors and the enthusiastic devotion of his subordinates. His fame as a wit runs back to his student days at Annapolis when he delighted to outwit his instructors. In his early career at sea he held more important posts than falls to the lot of the average young man. He has been in command of the Mare Island Navy Yard, was in charge of the operations in Panama, has served on the General Board of the Navy and as a director of the Panama Railroad Company. In the summer of 1919 after bringing the Atlantic Fleet from Europe he took it through the Panama Canal and up the

Pacific coast to San Francisco. Admiral Rodman has a cheerful personality which impresses every one whom he meets. As to the wit of the American, his reputation is as wide as the seven seas.

THE PEACE CONFERENCE AT PARIS



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IN THE CATHEDRAL AT MEAUX WAS HELD A THANKSGIVING OF COMRADES IN ARMS

THE STORY OF THE PEACE CONFERENCE

THE Peace Conference opened in Paris on January 15, 1918, where delegates from all the Allied and Associated Nations in the war against Germany and her Allies met to settle upon the terms of a treaty for the formal ending of the war. Georges Clemenceau, the Prime Minister of France, was elected chairman of the Conference. The American delegates were President Wilson, Colonel Edward M. House, Robert Lansing, the Secretary of State, General Tasker H. Bliss and Henry W. White. A great army of experts on various problems were sent by the nations to advise the chief commissioners and to work their decisions into the text of the treaty. A Council of Ten was formed which consisted of the foreign secretaries of the larger nations. But all the decisions were finally made by a Supreme Council of the five great powers, the United States, Great Britain, France, Italy and Japan.

After six months of exacting and laborious work the Treaty with Germany was finished and signed at the Palace of Versailles on June 28, 1919.

The terms of the Treaty were the severest ever presented to a conquered nation. By it Germany lost all her colonies. All the men in Germany who were responsible for the war and its crimes, which are described under thirty

heads, were to be surrendered for trial by the Allies. Germany was to return all the goods and money stolen from occupied territories, and to pay the cost of the war in indemnities which would be determined by a commission appointed to work out the details. Germany was made to give up territory on her eastern frontier, which was Polish, to the Poles, and the City of Danzig was made a free city. Alsace and Lorraine were returned to France, and France was to be allowed to control and work the coal mines in the Saar Basin in compensation for the German destruction of the coal mines around Lens. On the left bank of the Rhine for a distance of fifty kilometers Germany was not to maintain any forts or armed forces or hold military maneuvers. The German army was to be reduced to a force not exceeding 100,000 men and 4,000 officers. Within three months after the signing of the Treaty, Germany must close all establishments for the manufacturing, preparation, storage or design of arms and munitions of war and poisonous gases, and was not to import or manufacture these for exportation. The entire German navy was to be surrendered to the British, all military and naval aircraft likewise to be surrendered. Germany was to replace with her merchant ships ton for ton all the Allied ships that were lost or damaged owing to the war. The economic resources of the German nation were to be used towards the physical restoration of the areas devastated by the German armies. Germany was to renounce the treaties of Brest-Litovsk and Bucharest made with Russia and Roumania.

These are the most important clauses in the Treaty of a general nature that Germany had to accept. The Germans protested strongly against the harshness of the terms, but rendered helpless by the terms of the armistice there was nothing else to do but accept them and acknowledge defeat.

A notable part of the Treaty was the inclusion of the covenant for a League of Nations which was accepted by the ratification of the Treaty in many of the Allied countries and placed before the United States Senate for ratification.

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